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VOLUME V.

GANJÁM TO INDI.

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THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr. W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles – to 1 inch
REFERENCES
British Territory colored Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States Yellow
Independent States Green
Railways opened
Do not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
T H I B E T
ARABIAN SEA
Tropic of Cancer
BAY OF BENGAL
I N D I A N O C E A N
Gulf of Cambay
Gulf of Catch
Mouths of the Ganges
Gulf of Martaban
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Laccadive Islands
Maldive Islands
Nicobar Islands
Mergui Archipelago
BOMBAY
CALCUTTA
MADRAS
DELHI
Long. E. of 84 Greenwich

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME V.

Ganjám (*Ganj-i-ám*, 'the granary of the world').—British District in the extreme north-east of the Madras Presidency, lying between 18° 15′ and 20° 15′ N. latitude, and between 83° 49′ and 85° 15′ E. longitude. Bounded on the north by the Orissa Tributary States of Nayágarh, Daspalla, and Bod, of Bengal; on the east by the Bengal District of Púri and the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by the Feudatory States of Kaláhándí and Patná of the Central Provinces, and Vizagapatam District of the Madras Presidency. Area, 8311 square miles, of which 5205 square miles are in the Agency or Hill Tracts. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,749,604. In point of size, Ganjám District ranks sixth amongst the Districts of the Madras Presidency. Geographically the District divides itself into the Máliáhs or Hill Tracts, and the Plain country, and contains 16 large and 35 minor *zamíndárís* or proprietary estates, besides 3 Government *táluks*. There are altogether 16 towns, of which 2 are municipalities, and 6879 villages; of the latter, 2706 are in the Agency Tracts. Berhampur is the chief town of the District, and is also a military cantonment.

Physical Aspects.—The District is mountainous and rocky, but interspersed with valleys and fertile plains. In shape it resembles an hourglass, contracted in the centre, where the Eastern Gháts nearly meet the sea, and widening out in the north and south into undulating plains. Pleasant groves of trees give to the scenery a greener appearance than is usually met with in the plains farther to the south; whilst rugged mountains, frequently covered with dense jungle, relieve the eye. A chain of fresh-water or brackish lakes runs all along the coast, being separated from the sea by narrow strips of sand. Salt swamps and backwaters are also not uncommon. The chain of the Eastern Gháts, known as the Máliáhs

or Máliyás, which occupies the western portion of the District, has several well-defined gaps. On the Bod frontier it has a general elevation of about 2000 feet (the axis of the chain being here farther eastward and about 2500 feet high); west of Daringabadi the peaks rise above 4000 feet, and the general elevation exceeds 3000 feet. A gap occurs where the chain is pierced by the 'Hot Springs' Pass, and here 1800 feet is the summit level for some distance. In the Pedda Kimedi and Parla Kimedi Hills, the chain is over 3000 feet, and the peaks approach to near 5000 feet. The principal peaks are—Mahendragiri (4923 feet), Singháráj (4976), and Deodongá (4534). The passes which lead from the low country of Ganjám into the Máliyás, along their entire length of some 140 miles, are very numerous; but only one, the Kalinga Ghát, possesses a road available for wheeled traffic. Many of the passes are, however, practicable for elephants and other beasts of burden, although the paths are generally rocky, rugged, and steep. The chief rivers are—(1) the Rishikulya in the north, which rises in the hills beyond the District boundary, and, after a course of about 100 miles, falls into the sea near Ganjám town; this river is not ordinarily navigable, but rafts can be floated down it in the flood season between June and November: (2) the Vamsadhára, which rises in the Jaipur (Jeypore) Hills, and, after a course of about 145 miles, falls into the sea near Kalingapatam in the south of the District; it is more or less navigable for about 70 miles from its mouth: (3) the Lánguliyá, which takes its rise in Kaláhándí, and, after flowing for about 115 miles, enters the sea near Máphúz Bandar. Besides these rivers, there are numerous mountain streams and torrents, which are utilized for the purposes of irrigation. The banks of the rivers are usually steep and high, and there is in all of them a great tendency to accumulate silt. Their channels dry up in the hot season, but during the rains between June and November they are usually in full flood. Owing to the vicinity of the Eastern Gháts to the sea, however, the floods subside with rapidity; and from the same cause the rise of the waters in the rivers is frequently so great as to cause considerable damage to property, and not unfrequently loss of life. Sea and river fisheries form an important industry, and the fishing castes were returned in 1881 at 41,856, or 2·48 per cent. of the Hindu population. Pearl oysters, of an inferior quality, are found in the Sonápur backwater, and in the canal which runs from the Chilká Lake to the Rishikulya river. Iron-ore, limestone, building stone, sandstone, talc, and crystal comprise the mineral products. Timber forests are numerous and extensive, consisting chiefly of *sál*, with satin-wood, sandal, and ebony in smaller quantities. Beeswax, honey, turmeric, and myrabolans are jungle products, and important articles of commerce, being sold by the hill Kandhs (Khonds) to the low-country merchants. Wide grazing grounds

exist, which afford pasturage to large herds of cattle. Wild beasts are numerous in the hills.

History.—Ganjám anciently formed part of the southern kingdom of Kalinga. Its early history is involved in obscurity, and it was not until the long line of Gajapati or Ganga-vansa kings (1132–1532) occupied Orissa that the adjoining District of Ganjám was annexed to that Province. Owing to the nature of the country, Ganjám was only nominally reduced by the Musalmáns, who overran Orissa from Bengal for the first time about 1568. In 1641, the king of the Kutab-Sháhi kingdom sent a deputy, Sher Muhammad Khán, to Chikakol (Chicacole) to rule over the country as its first Faujdár. The present District of Ganjám formed under the Musalmáns a part of the Chikakol Circar, and the country south of the Rishikuliya river at Ganjám, as far as Kásibúgá, was known by the name of the Ichápur Province. Successive Faujdárs and Náibs continued to rule over the Chikakol Circar until 1753, in which year the Northern Circars were granted to the French by the Nizám, Salábat Jang, to cover the pay and equipment of the French auxiliaries in his service. M. de Bussy, who managed the affairs of the French at Haidarábád in the Deccan, proceeded to the Northern Circars in person in 1757, in order to secure the revenues on behalf of his native allies. After reducing the country as far as Gúmsar, on the south-west border of Ganjám, M. de Bussy was obliged to return, being recalled by M. Lally, the Governor of Pondicherri, who required his services at the siege of Madras (1758). In 1759, an expeditionary force under Colonel Forde, sent from Bengal by Clive, was successful in taking Masulipatam; and upon the key of their position in the Northern Circars falling into the hands of the English, the French found themselves obliged to abandon Ganjám and their other factories in the north. In 1765, the Northern Circars were granted to the English by the Mughal Emperor's *farmán*, dated the 12th August 1765; but it was not until the 12th November 1766, that Nizám Alí, the Súbah of the Deccan, agreed to ratify this *farmán* by actually ceding the country to the English. In August 1768, Mr. Edward Cotsford took possession of Ganjám as the first English Resident, and founded an English factory there, which he secured by means of a small fort. From 1768 down to 1802, the Ichhápur Province was ruled by a succession of Residents, Chiefs in Council, and Collectors; and in the latter year, the country south of the Púndi river, as far as Chikakol, was formed into the present District of Ganjám. The earlier records (1768–1802) of the District show that the *zamíndárs* were accustomed to pay their tributes only under actual pressure; and that the country was continually in a state of disturbance and confusion. Plunder, rapine, murders, and incendiarism were common; and one *zamíndár* had to be reduced by troops. In 1815, a severe epidemic fever prevailed in

the town of Ganjám, and carried off about 20,000 people in the course of the three years that it raged in the District. In 1816, the Pindárís came down upon the Parla Kimedi *zamíndárí*, and spread fire and sword from Ichhápur to Ganjám. In 1819, the disturbances in the Parla Kimedi and Mohirr *zamíndárís* had risen to such a height, that Government sent Mr. Thackeray to Ganjám, as Special Commissioner, to devise means for quieting the country. It needed the presence of a strong body of regular troops to crush the spirit of insubordination which had been fostered in the District by many years of a weak and vacillating policy. In 1834-35, the Parla Kimedi campaign took place, Brigadier-General Taylor in command. The judicious measures of Mr. George Russell, the Special Commissioner in this and the two succeeding Gúmsúr campaigns of 1835-37, did much to place the country on a more satisfactory footing, by reducing the two most refractory and influential *zamíndárs* in the District. The first contact of the English with the aboriginal KANDHS (Khonds) occurred in 1836, when it was discovered that they were addicted to the practice of human sacrifice (*meriah*). A special Agency, under European officers, was deputed to the tract, and succeeded in inducing the Kandhs to abandon the rite. In 1865, a partial rising of the Kandhs took place, but it was of an unimportant character, and was suppressed without the aid of regular troops. Since then the District has enjoyed undisturbed peace. (For further details, see Hunter's *Orissa*, vol. i. 18, ii. 49-53, and article KANDHS.)

Population.—A Census of the District taken in 1871 returned a total population of 1,520,088, inclusive of the people of the hills. The last Census of 1881 returned the number at 1,749,604, or an increase of 229,516 in ten years. Of the whole number returned in 1881, 246,303 inhabited the Hill Tracts, namely, 130,042 males and 116,261 females. The remainder, namely, 739,423 males and 763,878 females, total 1,503,301, inhabited the plains portion of the District. Scattered over the lowlands and highlands are 16 towns and 6879 villages. The number of houses is 336,646, of which 58,565 are in the Hill Tracts. This gives a proportion of 5·4 persons per house in the plains, and 4·2 in the hills. In density of population, Ganjám ranks third among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. The proportion in the plains is 484 persons to the square mile, being next to Tanjore and Vizagapatam Districts, and more than double the average. The proportion of males to females is 497 to 503 in every 1000 of the population. The number of children under 10 years were returned at 449,071, or 221,590 boys and 227,481 girls; between 10 and 20 years there were 159,293 males and 141,948 females, total 301,241. So that nearly half the population of the District are under 20 years of

age. The population is composed almost entirely of Hindus, of whom there were—males 865,229, females 875,945, total 1,741,174, or 99·58 per cent., distributed as follows:—Bráhmans, 127,869; Kshatriyás (warriors), 4143; Shettís (traders), 23,683; Vallálars (agriculturists), 461,995; Idaiyars (shepherds), 56,567; Kammálars (artisans), 44,970; Kanakkan (writers), 25,665; Kaikalars (weavers), 38,104; Vanniyáns (labourers), 42,712; Kushawáns (potters), 15,660; Sátánis (mixed castes), 29,670; Shambadavans (fishermen), 41,856; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 44,467; Ambattans (barbers), 25,206; Vannáns (washermen), 40,462; Pariahs, 198,179; other castes not specified, 464,853. The Muhammadans numbered only 6073; Christians, 1551, of whom 129 were Europeans, and 222 Eurasians; Jains and Buddhists, 270; and 'others,' 536. Sixty per cent. of the Christians are Roman Catholics. The distribution by occupation was as follows:—Under Class I., or professional, 29,843, or 1·71 per cent.; under Class II., or domestic, 22,133, or 1·26 per cent.; under Class III., or commercial, 21,523, or 1·23 per cent.; under Class IV., or agricultural, 568,843, or 32·51 per cent.; under Class V., or industrial, 180,382, or 10·31 per cent.; and under Class VI., or indefinite and non-productive, 926,880, or 52·98 per cent. Of the total population, 53·87 are employed in work, while 46·13 are dependent on them for support. Of the males, 63·27 per cent., and of the females, 44·59 are employed. There were in the plains, educated or under instruction, 61,406 persons, including 4268 females. The languages of the plains of Ganjám are Telugu and Uriyá, while Kandh and Savará are the languages of the tribes in the hills known by those names. The aboriginal tribes are principally Kandhs and Savarás, who have now nearly all embraced some form of Hinduism, and are included in the general number of Hindus returned above. Ethnically, the Uriyás (777,558) form the largest part of the District population, the remainder being for the most part Telugus (692,931). Their manners and customs differ, and they speak a distinct language. The Uriyás are chiefly found in the north of the District, extending as far south as Parla Kimedi. South of Kásibúgá, and throughout the Chikakol *táluk*, the larger number of the inhabitants are Telugus. There is, however, no clearly-defined line between the country occupied by the two races. The principal towns in Ganjám are—BERHAMPUR (1881), 23,599; PARLA KIMEDI, 10,812; CHIKAKOL, 16,355; ICHHAPUR, 5528; BARUVA, 4298; RAGHUNATHAPURAM, 7634; KALINGAPATAM, 4465; ASKA, 3909; GANJAM, 5037; GOPALPUR, 2675; BOYARANI, 3339; HARIMANDALAM, 3089; MANDASA, 4671; NARSANNAPET, 8230; PURUSHOTTAPUR, 3962; and SURADA, 3594. Gopálpur is the chief seaport of the District: the others are Ganjám, Bárúva, and Kalingapatam. The only municipalities are Berhampur and Chikakol.

Agriculture. — Agricultural operations commence in June, during which month the rains of the south-west monsoon usually begin to fall. In June the early dry grains and rice intended for transplanting are sown. Rice is sometimes sown broadcast, but is usually transplanted from specially prepared seed-beds. In July and September an ample and continued supply of water is essential to the growth of the young plants. The reaping of the rice crop commences soon after the 1st November, and sometimes lasts until the 15th January, according as the season has been early or late. An early season betokens, as a rule, a favourable harvest. The dry grain crops (*i.e.* those grown upon unirrigated land) and early rice are reaped between the 1st September and the 15th October. The after-crop of dry grains continues, however, to be reaped from the middle of February to the beginning of April. A second crop of rice in Ganjám is almost unknown; it occurs, however, in a tract of land not far from Ichápur, bordering upon the sea. Neither cotton nor fibre cultivation is pursued to any considerable extent. The sugar-cane grown in Ganjám is of excellent quality, and is said to be the best in India. It demands more care and attention, however, than any other crop, and is never grown for two years in succession on the same land. The soil requires to be well manured with oilcake or other suitable manure. Sugar-cane is estimated to require one-third more water than rice, and takes ten months before it reaches maturity. In spite of these drawbacks, however, the crop is exceedingly profitable to the peasant who can afford to grow it. Sugar-cane is chiefly cultivated about Aska. The total area of the District amounts to 8311 square miles, of which 5205 are comprised in the Máliyá Hill Tracts, and 3106 form the plains portion. The total cultivated area returned in 1881–82 was 428,337 acres (or nearly one-twelfth of the total area of the District), of which 203,184 acres were irrigated. The uncultivated area consisted of 70,763 acres of cultivable land, 28,139 acres of pasture and forest lands, and 147,090 acres of uncultivable waste; the total area assessed was 495,824 acres, and the total assessment amounted to £97,059. Of the cultivated area, cereals occupied 353,333 acres; pulses, 19,755 acres; orchards and garden produce, 14,838 acres; tobacco, 2015 acres; condiments and spices, 2090 acres; sugar-cane, 4123 acres; oil-seeds, 27,564 acres; and fibres, 4445 acres, including 4093 acres under cotton. The Imperial and minor irrigation works of the District comprise 45 irrigation channels, 112 large and 2661 minor tanks, which irrigated in 1881–82 a total area of 268,135 acres, yielding a water revenue of £54,517. Rice occupies about two-thirds of the area under grain cultivation. The agricultural stock of the District in 1881–82 consisted of 26,537 buffaloes, 81,400 bullocks, 66,279 cows, 157 horses and ponies, 561 donkeys, 1827 pigs, 25,768 goats, 12,093

sheep, 13,874 carts, and 47,440 ploughs. The peasantry, as a class, are poor, and generally in debt to the money-lenders, forestalling their crops by borrowing, or by selling the produce at a cheap rate for payment in advance. An average holding consists of about 8 acres, paying a yearly rental of about £2. The average rates of wages in 1881-82 were, for ordinary labourers, from 2d. to 3d. per day; and for blacksmiths, carpenters, and other skilled labourers, 6d. to 8d. Prices of rice and food-grains have risen to more than double the rates prevailing in 1850, and in the case of rice, to treble the former rates. The rates in 1881, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were as follow:—Rice, 4s.; *ragí* (Eleusine coracana), 2s. 2d.; *kambu* (Panicum spicatum), 2s.; millet, 2s. 3d.; wheat, 5s. 1d.; pulses, from 5s. 3d. to 2s. 0¾d.; salt, 6s. 10½d.; sugar, 21s. 10d.; gingelly, 6s.; tobacco, 22s.; cotton, 14s. 2d.; and sheep, 3s. 6d. each. Tenures are of three kinds—(1) *Ráyatwárí*, or small farms held by individuals direct from Government; (2) *koshtgutta*, in which whole villages unite in holding lands in common, direct from Government, with joint responsibility for rent; (3) *mustazárí*, or the farming-out system, which is confined to the *zamíndárí* tracts. By the last system lands are put up to auction, either in lots or entire villages, and knocked down to the highest bidder, who is left to make what profit he can out of the actual cultivators.

Natural Calamities.—Famines, caused by flood and drought, are the principal natural calamities to which the District is liable. The chief scarcities have been in 1789-92, 1799-1801, 1836-39, and 1865-66. The great famine of 1865-66 was principally confined to the northern portion of the District, but its ravages did not reach the same intensity as in Orissa. This famine was caused by the failure of the rains, following upon two years of partial scarcity in 1863 and 1864. It is estimated that 60,000 persons perished, either from starvation or from diseases induced by privation. The cost of relief was about £37,500.

Communications, Manufactures, etc.—The District contains 664 miles of made roads and 26 miles of canals in the plains, besides 323 miles of roads in the hill country. A tidal canal, 9 miles long, connects the Chilká lake with the Rishikulya river. Ganjám was formerly the seat of an important factory of the East India Company, and its looms supplied a considerable share of the annual 'Investment' from the Madras coast. The manufactures of the District are now chiefly confined to those required for local consumption. Muslin, handsomely finished with gold thread, is made in Chikakol. Sugar and rum factories exist at Aska. The sugar manufacture is a modification of the German method. It consists in chopping up the cane into small shavings by rapidly-revolving knives, and extracting the juice by

thoroughly saturating the cane in water. Fine white sugar can be refined within 48 hours after commencing the process. In 1880, the out-turn by the German process was valued at £16,000. The rum is manufactured chiefly out of the surplus syrup which it is not found profitable to convert into sugar. For making country spirits, rice and *mahuá* flowers (Bassia latifolia) are used. Cognac and milk punch are also manufactured in the Aska sugar factory. Annual out-turn of rum, 150,000 gallons. The season of sugar manufacture is from January to the end of March. Salt manufacture is a Government monopoly, and is carried on at Ganjám, Naupáda, and Vomarávilli.

Administration.—The District, which contains, besides the Hill tracts, the three Government *táluks* of BERHAMPUR, CHIKAKOL, and GUMSAR, is administered by a Collector-Magistrate, who is the chief executive and revenue officer, aided by 3 European Assistants, a District Judge, 4 District *munsifs*, a superintendent of police, and a staff of subordinate English and native officials. The Agency tracts are administered by a judge and 4 *munsifs*. In 1805–6, the total revenue amounted to £88,512, and the expenditure to £6143; in 1850–51, the revenue was £136,144, and the expenditure £22,325; while by 1881–82, the gross revenue had increased to £395,879. The principal items of Imperial revenue are land, which yielded in 1881–82, £118,459; excise, £12,077; assessed taxes, £1225; sea customs, £13,270; salt, £237,938; and stamps, £12,912. For the protection of person and property, there are 26 magisterial and 13 civil and revenue courts in the District. The regular police numbered 1356 officers and men of all ranks in 1881–82, costing £21,612, and showing a proportion of 1 policeman to every 6·1 square miles of country, and to every 1290 of the population. The average daily number of prisoners in the District jail at Berhampur was 130, and at Russellkonda Hill jail, 126, maintained at a total cost of £1967, or £7, 12s. 9d. per head of average strength. Education is comparatively forward, 8·3 per cent. of the population of the plains being able to read and write. In 1881–82 there were in the District 850 schools, attended by 17,312 pupils, besides 17 hill schools, attended by about 960 boys. [For further information regarding Ganjám, see the *Ganjám District Manual*, by T. J. Maltby and G. D. Leman, Esquires (Madras, Lawrence Asylum Press, 1882). Also *Report on the Kandhs of the Districts of Ganjám and Cuttack*, by Lieutenant (afterwards Major) Macpherson, Assistant Surveyor-General, dated Madras, 21st June 1841, and printed in Calcutta, folio, 1842; *The Madras Census Report* for 1881; and the *Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Presidency* from 1880 to 1883.]

Ganjám.—*Táluk* of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 553 square miles, with 300 villages. Population (1881) 78,513, namely,

39,357 males and 39,156 females; number of houses, 13,651. Hindus numbered 78,309; Muhammadans, 196; and Christians, 8.

Ganjám.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 22′ 27″ N., long. 85° 7′ E. Formerly the capital of the District to which it gives its name, situated at the mouth of the Rishikuliya river, 697 miles north-east of Madras, 315 miles south-west of Calcutta. Population (1881) 5037, namely, 4995 Hindus, 27 Muhammadans, 14 Christians, and 1 unspecified. The town itself and the remains of the old pentagon fort are on a rising slope; but north of the town the ground is low and feverish. It was formerly a seat of considerable trade, and of a Factory and Fort (1768) presided over by a Chief and Council; but since the removal to Berhampur of the head-quarters of the District in 1815, Ganjám has declined in size and importance. The removal was occasioned by an epidemic fever which carried off a large proportion of the inhabitants, both European and native. The sanitary condition of the town has been much improved of late. While it remained the chief town, Ganjám was remarkable for the magnificence of its European residences. Some of these still exist, as also the remains of the old forts (see Hunter's *Orissa*, vol. i. p. 17). The Government salt manufacture forms now the principal industry. The fort of Ganjám is situated at the mouth of the Rishikuliya river, but has no harbour, and the heavy surf and constant shifting of the sandbanks render it difficult of access. There is a mud dock for the repair of native vessels. European steamers occasionally visit the port. The chief trade consists of the export of rice.

Ganjám.—River in the Madras Presidency.—*See* RISHIKULIYA.

Ganjám.—Suburb of SERINGAPATAM, in Mysore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 24′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. It occupies the eastern or upper portion of the large island in the Káveri (Cauvery) river, on which Seringapatam is built. It was established by Tipú Sultán, who transported hither thousands of families from Síra. Now the most thriving part of the island, and the residence of several well-to-do merchants, with manufactures of cotton cloth. The Karigháta *játra* or festival held in February or March is annually attended by 20,000 persons.

built between 1768 and 1780. The residence of the ex-King of Oudh has been fixed here by the Government, and he occupies a series of magnificent mansions on the river bank, with menagerie and pleasure-grounds attached.

Gargáon.—Ruined town and fort in Sibságar District, Assam.—*See* GARHGAON.

Gargariba.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* HAIATPUR.

Ganutiá.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 52′ 30″ N., long. 87° 52′ 45″ E. Situated on the north bank of the river Mor, and

famous as the centre of the silk industry of Birbhúm. The Ganutiá factory was established in 1786 by Mr. Frushard, a merchant, who engaged to supply the East India Company with silk at fixed rates. Mr. Frushard's story is typical of the 'private adventurers' of the last century. It is told at length in Hunter's *Annals of Rural Bengal*, p. 357 *et seq.*, 5th edition. He met with much opposition from the District officials in his endeavours to become a producer of Bírbhúm silk on a large scale. The natives charged him the highest prices for everything, and the Company allowed him the smallest. At length, in 1790, he was compelled to make a final appeal to the Government for relief; and in 1791, Lord Cornwallis commanded all his arrears of revenue to be remitted, and his rent to be reduced by about one-half. Thus relieved, Mr. Frushard began to prosper. He converted the forest and waste around Ganutiá into thriving and prosperous villages, and founded little tributary factories throughout the whole north-eastern jungle of Bírbhúm. His factory, rebuilt several times, now forms the most imposing edifice in the District, and is the property of an English firm in Calcutta. The single process of winding off the cocoons formerly employed 2400 artisans, and it has been calculated that the factory supported 15,000 persons; its average annual outlay was unofficially returned in 1868 at about £72,000. At present (1883), owing to the decaying state of the silk industry, the Ganutiá factory only employs about 530 persons.

Garag.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 699 square miles; contains 3 towns and 97 villages. Population (1881) 100,333, namely, 49,506 males and 50,827 females. Hindus number 88,853; Muhammadans, 10,314; 'others,' 1166. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 334.

Garag (*Gadag*).—Chief town of the Sub-division of Garag, Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; 43 miles east of Dhárwár town. Lat. 15° 24′ 50″ N., long. 75° 40′ E. Population (1881) 17,001. Hindus number 13,460; Muhammadans, 3176; Christians, 331; and Jains, 34. Together with the neighbouring town of Betigeri, Garag forms a municipality, with a municipal revenue (1882–83) of £1548;

by T. J. Maltby and G. D. Leman, Esquires (Madras, Lawrence Asylum Press, 1882). Also *Report on the Kandhs of the Districts of Ganjám and Cuttack*, by Lieutenant (afterwards Major) Macpherson, Assistant Surveyor-General, dated Madras, 21st June 1841, and printed in Calcutta, folio, 1842; *The Madras Census Report* for 1881; and the *Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Presidency* from 1880 to 1883.]

Ganjám.—

Madhumatí, the largest and most important river in Jessor District, Bengal. The Garái is one of the principal channels by which the

waters of the Ganges are carried to the sea; its chief tributary is the Kumár, which was formerly itself the main stream, the Garái being then a feeder. Below Kushtiá, the Garái throws off several cross streams towards the Kumár, the most considerable being the Káligangá. During the rains so much water flows through this channel into the Kumár that at Rámnagar, near Mágura, the latter has to get rid of the surplus, and discharges part of its waters back again into the Garái channel. But in the cold season, when but little water comes down the Kumár, this cross stream flows in the opposite direction, and brings down the waters of the Garái towards Mágura with the Nabagangá. The Garái flows in a southerly direction from Ganespur to Haripur, about 35 miles; it is 420 yards wide in the rains, and navigable by steamers all the year round.

Garamli Moti.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Population (1881) 327. Estimated revenue, £200, of which £19, 12s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda and £2, 8s. to Junágarh.

Garamli Náni.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Population (1881) 400. Estimated revenue, £150, of which a tribute of £19, 8s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Garaspur.—Town and fort in Gwalior State, Central India. Lat. 23° 40′ N., long. 78° 9′ E. Noted for some fine ancient buildings elaborately sculptured, and carved out of the sandstone of the neighbouring hills.

Garden Reach.—A suburb of Calcutta; situated on the Húglí, 3 miles south of the city. Lat. 22° 32′ 35″ N., long. 88° 21′ 40″ E. The Peninsula and Oriental Navigation Company and the Messageries Maritimes have large establishments here, where passengers for Europe by their mail steamers embark. The small forts of Alígarh, on the left or Garden Reach side of the river, and Tanná, on the opposite bank, were taken by Lord Clive in the recapture of Calcutta, December 1756. Branch dispensary. The suburb was long a favourite place of residence for the European inhabitants of Calcutta, and contains many fine houses, situated in large 'compounds.' These houses are said to have been built between 1768 and 1780. The residence of the ex-King of Oudh has been fixed here by the Government, and he occupies a series of magnificent mansions on the river bank, with menagerie and pleasure-grounds attached.

Gargáon.—Ruined town and fort in Sibságar District, Assam.—*See* GARHGAON.

Gargariba.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* HAIATPUR.

Garh (*Gad*).—Petty State of the Sankhera Mehvás, in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north and east by

Chhota Udaipur, on the south by the Narbadá river separating it from Khándesh, and on the west by the estates of Palasni and Virpur. The estate includes 103 villages and is the largest in the Sankhera Mehvás, having an area of 128 square miles, and an estimated revenue of about £2000. Pays a tribute of £47, 10s. to Chhota Udaipur. Population almost wholly Bhíl. The chief, who is a Chauhán Rájput, represents a younger branch of the Chhota Udaipur house.

Garhá.—Ancient town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; 90 miles south-east of Ságar (Saugor). Lat. 23° 10′ N., long. 79° 56′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5587, as returned by the Deputy Commissioner, but the town is not shown separately in the Census Report. The figures probably include neighbouring villages. Garhá was formerly the capital of the Gond dynasty of Garhá Mándla, whose ruined keep, built about 1100 A.D., by Madan Singh, and known as the Madan Mahal, still crowns the low granite range, along the foot of which the town stretches for about 2 miles. Under the Mahal, to the west, is the beautiful Gangá Ságar tank, and near it the large sheet of water called the Bál Ságar. Garhá has an excellent Government school, with about 125 scholars. The trade is insignificant, its decline dating from the removal of the Gond dynasty to Singaurgarh. The Garhá mint, which coined an inferior rupee called the Bálá Sháhí, formerly current throughout Bundelkhand, was in full operation when Mr. Daniel Leckie passed through the place in 1790.

Garhá.—Petty State of the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency, under the Gwalior Agency of Central India.—*See* GHARRA.

Garhá Kalán.—Village in Banda District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 2000, consisting chiefly of Bráhmans and Chamárs. Founded about 500 years ago, and burnt during the Mutiny by troops of the rebel Náráyan Ráo of Karwí, in revenge for the inability or unwillingness of the inhabitants to provide supplies.

Garhákota.—The chief town of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 47′ N., long. 79° 11′ 30″ E.; situated in an angle formed by the rivers Sonár and Gadháiri, 27 miles east of Ságar; about 1435 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 11,414, namely, Hindus, 7701; Sikh, 1; Satnámís, 7; Kabírpanthís, 1293; Muhammadans, 1897; Jains, 474; Christians, 5; aboriginal religions, 36. Number of houses, 3473. It was probably founded by the Gonds, who held it until about 1629, when a Rájput chief from Bundelkhand, named Chandra Sáh, expelled them, and built the fort. In 1703, Hirde Sáh, son of the famous Chhatra Sál, the Bundela Rájá of Panná, took the fort, giving the Rájput chief in lieu the single village of Naiguwán, in Rehlí, still held at a quit-rent by a descendant of Chandra Sáh. Hirde Sáh built another town east of the fort, on the other side of the river, and called it after himself, Hirdenagar. Five years after his death,

which happened in 1739, dissensions arose between Subhá Singh and his younger brother Prithwí Singh. The latter invited the Peshwá to his assistance, promising in return a fourth of the revenues, and by these means succeeded in constituting himself ruler of the town and tract of Garhákota. In 1820, the Rájá of Nágpur invested the fort. Mardan Singh, a descendant of Prithwí Singh, was killed in a skirmish, and his son, Arjun Singh, applied to Sindhia, offering to cede one-half of the territory in payment for his protection. Sindhia accordingly despatched an army under Colonel Jean Baptiste, who defeated the Nágpur troops, and retained Málthon and Garhákota for Sindhia, leaving for Arjun Singh the country of Sháhgarh, with other territory. Baptiste remained for some time at Garhákota, as governor of the fort. In 1819, however, Arjun Singh seized the fort by treachery, and held it for six months, when he was ejected by a British force under General Watson. From that time the English administered the country on behalf of Sindhia, till in 1861 an exchange was effected, and Garhákota became British territory.

Garhákota really consists of two towns, divided by the river Sonár—Garhákota and Hirdenagar, in the latter of which all the trade of the place is carried on. The chief manufactures are red cloths called *ádhí* and *pathí*, worn chiefly by women. *Gur*, or coarse sugar, is largely produced and exported; and grain, especially rice and wheat, sent both north and south. Besides the market held every Friday for the sale of grain, cattle, and native and English cloth, there is a large cattle fair, beginning on the 18th January, and lasting for six weeks, which is attended by about 30,000 persons from Gwalior, Bhopál, Bundelkhand, and most Districts of the Central Provinces. In 1868–69, the imports of Garhákota amounted to £16,958, the exports to £20,068. There is a District post-office, and schools for boys and girls. The fort is solidly constructed on a lofty eminence east of the town, between the rivers Sonár and Gadháiri, with an artificial moat on its unprotected side. The inner walls enclose a space of [illegible] mostly covere[illegible] Population (1881) 5541, namely, Muhammadans, 2391, chiefly Patháns; Hindus, 1755, principally Baniyás; and 'others,' 1395. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £1109; expenditure, £679; incidence of local taxation, 2s. 7d. per head. Considerable trade in oil. Travellers' bungalow, court-house, and post-office.

Garhmukhtesar.—Ancient town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 47′ 10″ N., long. 78° 8′ 30″ E. Stands on [illegible] upwards. [illegible] right bank of the Ganges [illegible] these ruins Sir Herbert Maddock, when Agent to the Governor-General at Ságar (Saugor), built a large flat-roofed house, which has lately been placed in charge of the Forest Department. Dispensary and police station.

and in the *Mahábhárata.* Ancient fort, afterwards occupied by a Maráthá leader. Derives its name from the great temple of Mukhteswara Mahádeo, dedicated to the goddess Gangá, consisting of four separate shrines, two on the cliff and two below it. Close by stand 80 *sati* pillars. A great fair at the full moon of Kártik attracts 200,000 pilgrims from all parts of the country. Inhabitants chiefly Bráhmans. Little trade except in timber and bamboos, rafted down the Ganges from the Dún and Garhwál. Police station, four *saráis,* staging bungalow, charitable dispensary. Ferry in the rains, and bridge of boats during the remainder of the year.

court sits twice a week. Police station.

Garhborí.—*Parganá* in Chándá District, Central Provinces, containing 129 villages, with an area of 576 square miles. A hilly and thickly-wooded tract, intersected from north to south by four branches of the Andhárí river, and rendered picturesque by several magnificent tanks or lakes. The soil is chiefly red, and devoted to rice and sugar-cane. The population mostly consists of Korís and Mánás.

Garhborí.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces; on a branch of the Andhárí river, 16 miles north-north-west of Múl. Lat. 20° 18′ N., long. 79° 38′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1269. Manufactures a *sárí* (native female garment) of a peculiar pattern, and produces excellent *pán.* The houses cluster round a fortified hill, with forests on all sides; and near the town are quarries of freestone and limestone. Garhborí has Government schools for boys and girls, and a police outpost.

Gárhvi.—River of the Central Provinces; rising near Chichgarh, in Bhandára District, in lat. 20° 52′ N., long. 80° 34′ E., and flowing southwards for 150 miles, falls into the Waingangá river below Seoni, in Chánda District, lat. 20° 26′ N., long. 80° E. According to a local legend, the stream issued from the earth at the prayer of a holy man named Gárga Rishi.

Garhwál.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 26′ and 31° 5′ N. lat., and between 78° 17′ 15″ and 80° 8′ E. long. Garhwál forms the north-western District of the Kumáun Division. It is bounded on the north by Chinese Tibet, on the east by Kumáun District, on the south by Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, and on the west by Independent Garhwál or Tehri, and Dehra Dún District. Estimated area, 5500 square miles; population (1881) 345,629 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at PAURI, but SRINAGAR is the chief town of the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Garhwál consists for the most part of rugged mountain ranges, the central peaks or outliers of the main Himálayan chain, tossed about in the most intricate confusion, and severed by narrow valleys, which may rather be described as gorges

or ravines. The broadest among them, that of Srínagar, measures barely half a mile in width, and has an elevation of 1820 feet above sea-level. A narrow strip of *bhábar*, or waterless forest, some 2 or 3 miles in breadth, intervening between the southern bases of the hills and the alluvial lowlands of Rohilkhand, forms the only level portion of the District. To the north, the mountains belong to the central upheaval line of the Himálayas, the principal peaks within the boundaries of Garhwál being—Trisúl, 23,382 feet; Nandá Deví, 25,661 feet; Dúnagiri, 23,181 feet; Kamet, 25,413 feet; Badrináth, 22,901 feet; and Kedárnáth, 22,853 feet. North-westward from this massive chain, the mountains fall away to the elevated plateau of Tibet, scored by the valleys of the Saraswatí and the Dhauli, through which the MANA and NITI PASSES respectively lead across the frontier into Chinese territory. Southward from the main range, again, parallel spurs run towards the plain in a direction from north-east to south-west, while cross systems of irregular hills connect their lines from time to time, interspersed with occasional ridges of greater elevation, which reach a height of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet. South of the river Nyár, however, the ranges assume a direction more parallel to the plains, and nowhere exceed an elevation of 7500 feet. Along the larger rivers, the hills present a gradual slope at their bases, and end in a succession of dry terraces, which are generally cultivated by artificial irrigation. Above, a belt of forest clothes their flanks; while the actual summits rise high into the region of perpetual snow. The ALAKNANDA RIVER, one of the main sources of the Ganges, marks the central line of greatest depression, and with its affluents receives the whole drainage of the District. The Alaknanda forms one of the holiest amongst Indian objects of reverence, and each of the points where it meets a considerable confluent is regarded as a sacred station in the pilgrimage which devout Hindus perform to Himáchal. At Deoprayág, a place of special sanctity, it joins the BHAGIRATHI, and the united streams thenceforward assume the name of GANGES. The only important river in Garhwál that does not fall into the Ganges within the borders of the District is the Rámgangá, which rises near Lobha, and, flowing through Kumáun and the plains of Rohilkhand, finally debouches into the great stream in Farukhábád District. Navigation is impracticable on all the rivers, owing to their great velocity, and the existence of shoals or rapids; but several of them afford a waterway for rafting timber. The southern portion of the District is still covered with primeval forest, and tiger-haunted jungles abound in the central tract; but cultivation encroaches year by year on the wild lands, and the people are encouraged to settle and reclaim the soil by grants at a nominal rent.

History.—In the almost total absence of written records, the annals of Garhwál have to be constructed partly from local tradition and partly

from inference. About five hundred years ago, the valley of the Alaknandá was divided into 52 petty chieftainships, each chief having his own independent fortress (*garh*), from which the country is said to have derived its name. Between four and five centuries ago, Ajai Pál, ruler of Chándpur, reduced all these minor principalities under his own sway, and became the founder of the Garhwál kingdom. He placed his capital at Srínagar, where he built a palace, the ruins of which still remain in tolerable preservation. The Rájás of his line, known as the Chánd Dynasty, ruled over Garhwál and the adjacent Tehri State until their expulsion by the Gurkhás in 1803. The succession appears to have been strictly hereditary. One of the line, Pridhiman Sáh, was chosen ruler of Kumáun; but on his father's death, he preferred the certain tenure of his ancestral dominions to the precarious throne of the neighbouring State, which lay at the mercy of the party from time to time in power at Almora. The Chánd Rájás seem generally to have ruled with justice and moderation, and their country attained a considerable degree of prosperity for a mountain principality. Twice they successfully repelled an invasion of the Rohillás—on one occasion when the freebooters attacked them through Kumáun, and again when they attempted to enter the hill country through Dehra Dún. But a constant predatory warfare existed between Garhwál and Kumáun, each party making forays into the territory of their rivals whenever opportunity offered, and plundering all that came in their way. To the present day, a slumbering animosity between the inhabitants of the two Districts is only kept in check by the British authority.

In 1803, the Gurkhás, then the dominant race in Nepál, made their way westward, conquering everything before them, and drove Pridhiman Sáh, the Chánd Rájá, into the plains. For twelve years they ruled with a rod of iron over the whole of Garhwál and Dehra Dún, and impoverished the country by their tyranny. They divided the District into a number of petty military fiefs, in which each commandant exacted as much as he was able in addition to the demand of the central power. The villages were left waste; the inhabitants fled into the most impenetrable jungles; and to this day the name of Gurkhá forms a popular synonym for all that is cruel and tyrannical. Years of our rule have hardly sufficed to obliterate the effects of this terrible invasion, which threw back the progress of the country for at least a quarter of a century. The Gurkhás then commenced a series of petty encroachments on the British territories at the foot of the Himálayas, which were not resisted with any vigour until the attention of our Government was attracted in 1812 by their outrageous aggressions on the Gorakhpur and Tirhút frontier. After an unsuccessful attempt at conciliation, war broke out in November 1814. The events of the

campaign, which resulted in our capture of Almora and the reduction of the two Districts, belong rather to the history of KUMAUN. At the close of the war, the Tehri principality, known as INDEPENDENT GARHWAL, was restored to Sendurshan Sáh, whose grandson, Pratáp Sáh, still retains it; but the valley of the Alaknandá was erected into a British District, and organized on the usual model. Under our strong and peaceful administration, British Garhwál has risen from a state of desolation scarcely paralleled elsewhere in India, to a height of material prosperity which it never before enjoyed. Cultivation has rapidly increased; and the growth of tea culture has opened the District to British capital and enterprise, which are turning this once wretched tract into an important and wealthy region.

Population.—The Census of 1872 was taken over an area approximately estimated at 5500 square miles; it disclosed a total population of 310,288 persons, distributed among 3944 villages or townships, and inhabiting 57,293 houses. The last Census in 1881 returned the population at 345,629, showing an increase of 35,341, or 11·4 per cent. during the nine years. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Estimated area of District, 5500 square miles; members of villages, 3862; houses, 47,736. Total population, 345,629, namely, males 170,755, and females 174,874; proportion of males, 49·4 per cent. Average density of population, 62·8 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·70; persons per village, 89·5; houses per square mile, 8·6; persons per occupied house, 7·2. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Garhwál is almost exclusively a Hindu District, as many as 343,186 persons, or 99·4 per cent., being returned as adherents of the ancient creed; while the Muhammadans number only 2077, or 0·6 per cent. The Musalmáns live in such scattered localities that they possess little or no social influence. Jains number 69, and Buddhists 55. There is a mission at Chapra, near Pauri, and 242 persons were returned in 1881 as being Christians. Of Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 77,960; Rájputs, the great bulk of the population, 204,519; Baniyás or traders, 3657; Gosáins, 2620; and Doms, 52,060. The great Hindu temples of BADRINATH and KEDARNATH attract large numbers of pilgrims, and have produced a deep influence on the history and manners of the people. They lie among the inmost recesses of the snowy range. The sanctity of these shrines has contributed to render the inhabitants superstitious and bigoted; but the yearly influx of pilgrims adds greatly to the wealth of the District.

Three principal races inhabit the southern slopes of Garhwál. The Dhúms (who are not returned separately in the Census Report) appear to be the descendants of aboriginal tribes, and now form the menial class throughout the District. They differ totally in

features, habits, and religion from the other castes by whom they have been brought into subjection. The Khasiyás evidently came from the plains of Hindustán, but they preserve no memory of their immigration. They comprise many castes of Bráhmans, Rájputs, etc., all of which, however, are regarded by the orthodox Hindus as Súdras. They reside principally in the central and northern *parganás*, and resemble the Gurkhás in appearance, from which fact it may perhaps be inferred that they are not free from a Nepálese admixture. The third class includes the true Bráhmans and Rájputs, most of whom arrived in the country after the establishment of a settled government. Some of the Bráhmans trace back their immigration to the times of Kanak Pál, who first settled in Chándpur and built a fort, the ruins of which are still in existence. A totally distinct race inhabits the region lying within the snowy range. These are the Bhutiás, a tribe of Indo-Chinese origin, much intermixed with Hindu elements. They talk the Húnia or Tibetan language, as well as Hindí, and have besides a patois of their own. They are few in number, but they control the whole carrying trade with Tibet. Both men and women are powerfully built, dirty in their habits, and greatly addicted to drink. Among the social customs of Garhwál generally, must be noticed the universal prevalence of polygamy. Wives are looked upon in the light of beasts of burden, so that every man obtains as many as his means will afford. Desertion and suicide are common, in spite of all the efforts of the British officials in ameliorating the condition of women. The District contained no place in 1881 with a population exceeding 5000 persons. PAURI, the head-quarters station, can hardly claim any higher rank than that of a hill village; and SRINAGAR, in the valley at its foot, is the only place which reaches the dignity of a town. Of a total of 3862 villages in 1881, 3582 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 270 had from two to five hundred; and only 9 from five hundred to a thousand.

Agriculture.—Out of an estimated area of 5500 square miles, only 173 were returned in 1881 as under cultivation. Nevertheless, this amount is nearly treble of the tilled land in 1815. Agriculture is carried on with considerable skill and great industry. Taking into account the steep nature of the country, it must be allowed that the people deserve great credit for the manner in which they have divided it into terraces, some of the fields having a breadth of only 3 yards. Wheat, rice, and *manduá* form the staple crops; and the quantities grown not only suffice for local wants, but leave a surplus for exportation to the neighbouring District of Bijnaur (Bijnor) and to Tibet. The chief food of the lower classes is *manduá*, which yields a larger return than any other crop. Cotton is little cultivated, as it can be purchased elsewhere at a cheaper rate than that for which it could be

produced in the District. The people have grown richer of late years, and are enabled to keep more cattle than formerly, and consequently to employ more manure for their fields. Abundant pasture lands stretch along the upper slopes of the snowy range, affording excellent grazing for large herds of goats and sheep during the rains. Unlimited pasturage also exists in the valleys and in the *bhábar* at the foot of the hills, but this has been preserved by the Forest Department, which levies dues on all animals permitted to enter its boundaries. Cattle in numbers come for grazing from the western *parganás* of Kumáun, where no pasturage is found. The cultivators chiefly consist of petty proprietors, and the peasantry as a whole are well-to-do and free from debt. Rents are generally paid in cash, except by tenants-at-will, who pay in kind at the rate of from one-fourth to one-third of the crop. Irrigation is practised wherever water can be obtained; and two small canals in the *bhábar* supply an area of 1300 acres. The regular rotation of crops consists of rice, followed by wheat, and then by *manduá;* after which the land lies fallow till the next rice season. Tea-planting is carried on under European supervision to a considerable extent. The planters give occupation to about 400 permanent and 600 short-service labourers, the latter being employed during the tea-picking season. Wages have more than doubled during the last thirty years. In 1850, ordinary coolies obtained ¾d. per diem; they now receive 3d. per diem. Smiths, braziers, and carpenters used to get from 3d. to 4½d.; they are now paid from 4½d. to 9d. Agricultural day-labourers are unknown in Garhwál. The ordinary price of *manduá* varies from 30 to 40 *sers* per rupee, or from 3s. 9d. to 2s. 10d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods occasionally occur on the Alaknandá, one of which, before the Gurkhá conquest, swept away half the town of Srínagar. In 1868, again, an inundation of the same river inflicted considerable damage. Droughts also affect the District from time to time; but owing to the high ranges of hills on every side, they are never general, though they may extend over so wide a tract as to make their effects felt throughout the whole country. The last great scarcity from this cause took place in 1867, when the *rabí* crops in all the lower and more fertile portion of Garhwál almost entirely failed. Government made an advance of £1000, and grain purchased in the *bhábar* was carried up by the people themselves for sale at certain established centres. Money was plentiful in the District at the time, so that most purchasers paid in cash, only a few giving labour in exchange for food. The *kharíf* crops of the same year proved excellent in their yield, and entirely relieved the temporary distress. Garhwál suffered but little from the terrible famine of 1868–70, and probably gained in the end, as measures were taken to prevent the export of grain or the ingress of pilgrims; and the crop of 1869 turning out a good one, the

people sold large quantities of grain after the removal of the embargo, at very high rates, to the inhabitants of Bijnaur. This famine also acted as an incentive to increased cultivation. The District suffered severely in 1877-78, when about £1200 worth of grain was advanced to the people to carry them over the scarcity. Want of carriage forms the great difficulty in relieving distress among the Garhwál hills, since supplies can only be drawn from the *bhábar*, or the adjacent plain Districts; and to reach these places a very malarious jungle must be traversed. Sir H. Ramsay has done much to avert the recurrence of dearth by his settlements in the *bhábar* of Kumáun, but the similar tract in Garhwál does not possess like capacities for cultivation. Famine rates are reached when wheat sells at 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt., and *manduá* at 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The Bhutiás carry on a considerable traffic with Tibet, to which country they export grain, sugar, cloth, and tobacco; while salt, borax, wool, gold, and precious stones form the chief staples of the return trade. Sheep and goats imported from Chamba are employed as beasts of burden on these routes, which lie over the lofty crests of the Mána and Níti Passes. Bird-skins and the pods of musk-deer formerly ranked as main items in the exports southward; but owing to the reckless way in which the animals were destroyed, measures have been taken to preserve them, which cause a temporary interference with the trade. Several valuable minerals are found in Garhwál, including copper, iron, lead, silver, and gold; none, however, occur in paying quantities or positions. Coin accumulates from year to year, mainly through the influx of pilgrims to the great temples. Tea-planting has not hitherto proved remunerative, but its financial prospects are improving, as the planters gradually learn to economize labour and to reduce expenditure. No railway station exists nearer than Sahåranpur, distant from Pauri about 100 miles. Good hill roads, from 10 to 12 feet in width, intersect the District in every direction. Most of them are bridged throughout. The total length of roads amounts to about 1000 miles. The chief routes, in a commercial point of view, are those—(1) from Srínagar to Níti, 125 miles, which serves the Tibet trade; (2) from Srínagar to Kotdwára, 55 miles, which serves the traffic to the plains; (3) from Kainúr to the great trading mart at Rámnagar, which carries the hill produce; and (4) from Pauri to Almora, connecting the two head-quarters stations.

Administration.—The District is administered by a senior-Assistant Commissioner, who resides at Pauri, and possesses criminal and revenue jurisdiction. The office is now held by a military officer in civil employ, assisted by an extra-Assistant Commissioner and a *tahsíldár*, both of

whom are stationed at Pauri. The Civil Judge, who exercises revenue and criminal powers, also resides at Pauri, which is the head-quarters as well of the native civil judge. In 1822 the total land revenue amounted to £5851; by 1875 it had risen to £9555; and by 1882 to £12,167. There is no regular police except at head-quarters, and little crime of any kind. Long-term prisoners are sent to the jail at Almora, and the only place of confinement in Garhwál is a lock-up at Pauri. Education has made much greater progress among these mountain valleys than in the plain country at their feet. The total number of Government inspected schools in the District in the year 1883 amounted to 67; and the total number of pupils on the rolls to 3314. These figures show an average of 1 school to every 82 square miles of area, and 9 scholars per thousand of the population. This, however, is exclusive of uninspected schools, for the Census Report of 1881 returns 3744 boys and 177 girls as under instruction, besides 12,278 males and 135 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 11 *parganás* and 86 *pattis*. The number of registered proprietors at the last settlement amounted to 31,118. There are no municipalities in Garhwál.

Medical Aspects.—For six months in the year the climate of Garhwál is damp and rainy; but during the remaining half of each twelvemonth it is dry and bracing. The natural features of the country, however, introduce many minor modifications in various portions of the District. Towards the Níti and Mána Passes, in the Bhutiá country, periodical rains do not occur, and the climate is always cool. In the valleys, intense heat prevails during the summer months, while the nights and mornings in the cold season are bitterly cold. The average annual rainfall at Pauri is about 48·4 inches, and at Srínagar about 37·1 inches. Fevers and bowel complaints form the chief endemic diseases, but cholera prevails to a much greater extent than in the plains. The total number of deaths recorded in 1881 was 6910, or 20 per thousand of the population. Small-pox formerly ravaged the District, but owing to the vaccination arrangements lately made, this annual plague has ceased to recur with its former regularity. There are 7 charitable dispensaries—at Srínagar, Karnprayág, Ukhimath, Chimauli, Joshimáth, Ganai, and Bikhia-kasain. During the year 1882 they gave relief to 18,861 patients. [For further information regarding Garhwál, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vols. x. and xi., by E. T. Atkinson, Esq., C.S. (Government Press, Allahábád, 1882 and 1884). Also the *Census Report for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* in 1881; together with the *Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Garhwál (or *Tehrí*).—A Native State in political relationship with

the Government of the North-Western Provinces; lying between lat. 30° 2′ and 31° 20′ N., and between long. 77° 54′ and 79° 19′ E. It extends over the south-western declivity of the Himálayas, and consists throughout of a vast range of mountains of enormous height, intermingled with several valleys, the drainage of the whole ultimately finding its way to the Ganges. The chief town is Tehrí, by which appellation the State is sometimes mentioned. The Rájá of Garhwál, Pratáp Sáh, is a Kshatriyá of the Lunar race. The early history of the dynasty is obscure; but it appears that they exercised authority over the whole of Garhwál for many generations, paying, however, a small tribute to the Emperor of Delhi. In 1804, the Gurkhás overran the country and expelled the Rájá, but he was replaced by the British after the Nepál war of 1815, and that portion of his hereditary possessions which lay to the west of the Alaknandá river was restored to him; the lands to the east, the Dehra Dún and the District of Garhwál, being retained by the British Government. (*See* GARHWAL DISTRICT.) During the Mutiny of 1857, the Rájá, Sudar Shan Sáh, rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1859 without legitimate issue, and, in accordance with the terms of the treaty, the State lapsed to Government; but, in consideration of the services of Sudar Shan Sáh, his eldest illegitimate son, Bhawání Singh, was allowed to succeed. Bhawání Singh subsequently received a *sanad* giving him the right of adoption. He was succeeded in 1871 by his eldest son, Pratáp Sáh, the present ruler, who was born about 1850. The State pays no tribute. The area of Garhwál is about 4180 miles; the population in 1881 was returned at 199,836 persons, inhabiting 2249 villages and 22,728 houses. Hindus numbered 198,738; Muhammadans, 1089; and Christians, 9. The Rájá's estimated revenue is £8000 per annum. The hills are generally very steep, and a large portion of the territory is covered with forests, which include valuable *deodar* tracts. These were leased to the British Government in 1864.

Garnimetta (*Gurnimetta*).—Town in Váyalpád *táluk*, Kadapa (Cuddapah) District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 13° 48′ N., longitude 78° 56′ E. Population (1881) 3934, namely, 3808 Hindus and 126 Muhammadans; houses, 929.

Gáro Hills.—The District of the Gáro Hills forms the south-western corner of the Province of Assam. It lies between 25° 9′ and 26° 0′ N. lat., and between 89° 52′ and 91° 3′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Goálpárá District; on the east by the Khási and Jáintia Hills; on the south and west by the Bengal Districts of Maimansingh and Rangpur. According to the recent survey, it contains an area of 3146 square miles, with a population in 1881 of 109,548 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the station of TURA, on the mountain range of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—The entire District, as implied by its name, is a mountainous tract, forming the western end of the great chain which runs between the Surma and Brahmaputra valleys. On the north, near the Brahmaputra river, the hills are low, and covered only with grass or scrub jungle; but they gradually increase in height towards the interior of the District. The two principal ranges are known as the Turá and Arbelá Hills, which run parallel to one another east and west. Their greatest height is 4650 feet, which is attained by two peaks in the Turá range. As is the case with all the mountains on the north-east frontier of India, these ranges take the form of a series of long even ridges, with deep valleys between, occasionally diversified by peaks or towering masses of rock. Except on the rare spots where *júm* cultivation has been introduced, they are clothed with dense forest, containing timber trees of majestic dimensions. From the summit of Turá Hill a magnificent view can be obtained over the flat Districts of Goálpárá, Rangpur, and Maimansingh, and the sweeping course of the Brahmaputra can be traced for a distance of upwards of 100 miles. On a clear day in the months of October and November, the eye can discern the snowy peaks of the Himálayas, far beyond the distant station of Dárjíling. In the valleys, also, the scenery is of a very picturesque character. The hill streams break through rocky gorges, which are overgrown to the water's edge with forest trees, creepers of many varieties, and gigantic ferns.

The BRAHMAPUTRA, called the Songdi by the Gáros, nowhere touches the boundary of the District; but several tributaries of that river take their rise among the hills, and find their way into the Districts of Goálpárá and Maimansingh. Of these, the five most important are the KRISHNAI, KALU, BHOGAL, NITAI, and SOMESWARI, all of which are used for floating down timber rafts, and can be navigated by canoes during the cold season. The Turá range constitutes the watershed of the District, all the streams north of that line draining into Goálpárá, while those to the south flow into Maimansingh. The streams abound in fish, which the Gáros are expert in catching by several ingenious devices.

The extensive forests of the District are too remote from means of communication to yield much profit at present. The valuable *sál* tree is very abundant, and the *tún*, *kurái*, and *ajár* are also felled for timber. In recent years, the British authorities have adopted the policy of taking into their own hands the entire management of the forests, after compensating the *zamíndárs* and the hillmen for the rights which they formerly enjoyed. It is proposed to plant nurseries of *sál* in spots convenient for water carriage, and carefully reserve them from the fires of *júm* cultivation. At present the woodcutters take out licences to fell timber within certain limits. In the year 1881–82, the revenue derived

from this source amounted to £907, but the collections are very fluctuating. The jungle products are—lac, beeswax, various fibres, used for making string and cloth, and a few dyes. Wild animals and large game abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, wild dogs, buffaloes, *mithún* or wild cows, and many kinds of deer. Government has recently asserted its prerogative to the sole right of capturing wild elephants. It has been estimated that the District can annually supply nearly 200 of these valuable animals for several years to come, which alone would more than repay all the local expenses of administration. The mineral products known to exist are—coal of fair quality and under a large area, building stone, and lime. No metals have hitherto been discovered.

History.—The Gáro Hills were first constituted a separate administration in the year 1866. Previous to that date, the independence of the tribes living in the remote hills had been tacitly recognised. From the time when the British obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in the last century, numerous Gáro villages along the foot of the hills were included within the Districts of Goálpárá and Maimansingh. The frontier, however, was always very ill-defined, being fixed neither by geographical nor ethnical principles. The boundaries were finally settled by the survey executed between 1870 and 1875. Towards the east a line has been drawn along rivers and other natural boundaries, to demarcate the Gáro from the Khási Hills. On the north and west, some tracts previously included within Goálpárá District have been definitely attached to the Gáro Hills; and the dues and cesses formerly levied by the lowland *zamíndárs* are now collected on their account by the direct agency of Government. On the south side, towards Maimansingh, a similar principle has been adopted; and a long-standing dispute has been terminated, which dated back to the Permanent Settlement. The Rájá of Susang and other Maimansingh *zamíndárs* had persistently asserted their claim to a large portion of the hills, as having been originally included within their permanently-settled estates; and they urged, accordingly, that such portion of the hills lay within the jurisdiction of the Collector of Maimansingh. These claims, however, were never admitted by the Government. In 1866 the boundary was roughly drawn at its present line, and the Maimansingh landholders' claims were finally satisfied by money payments, and the land attached to the Gáro Hills.

But though a British officer was appointed to the Gáro Hills in 1866, the mountainous interior still remained a *terra incognita*, and its inhabitants continued to be known as the Independent Gáros. In December 1867, the Deputy Commissioner took up his quarters at Turá, and by the end of 1871 nearly 100 villages had tendered their submission. In that year, however, there occurred the unfortunate incident which led

to the armed expedition of 1872-73. After the conclusion of the survey of the adjoining Khásí Hills, the survey party was deputed to explore the country of the Independent Gáros. At first no active opposition was encountered, though it was found that the hillmen gradually ceased to offer ready assistance. Their suspicions evidently were aroused. In March 1871, two Bengali coolies of the survey party, who had been detached to procure labour from the secluded villages of Rangmágiri and Pharámgiri, were treacherously attacked, and one of them was murdered. This outrage was followed by several raids on the part of the Independent Gáros against their countrymen who lived under British protection. The Deputy Commissioner immediately occupied the rebellious villages with bodies of police, but he was not strong enough to pursue the inhabitants into their retreat amid the forests. Accordingly it was determined to take advantage of the cold season of 1872-73, in order to enforce the authority of the British Government throughout the whole country, and to receive the submission of about 60 villages that still held out. The expedition consisted of three strong detachments of police, operating from separate points, and three companies of the 43rd Assam Light Infantry. The military, however, were never required to advance farther than the frontier of the Khásí Hills. After one engagement, in which the Gáros suffered some loss, the three police parties effected their junction, having marched through the country in all directions. Every one of the independent villages now tendered their submission. They surrendered the heads of the persons killed by them in their several raids, and paid the fine that was inflicted on them. At the same time, permanent measures were adopted for maintaining order in the future. Every part of the lately independent country was thoroughly examined, the number and size of the villages noted, and arrangements made for the appointment of *lashkars* or heads of circles. Every village was compelled to contribute to the revenue, according to an assessment levied on each house. By the end of May 1873, a map of the entire Gáro Hills District had been prepared, on the scale of four miles to the inch; and the wild interior was thus robbed of its chief protection, which our ignorance had conferred upon it. The results of this expedition have been most beneficial, and the civil administration has since been conducted with little or no trouble.

Population.—No attempt at a regular enumeration of the inhabitants has ever been effected in the Gáro Hills. The Deputy Commissioner in 1870 estimated the population at from 80,000 to 100,000. The Census of 1881 was only carried out in certain tracts, and careful estimates made from them for the remainder. The Census Report returns the total population at 109,548, of whom 23,914 reside in the plains, and 85,634 in the hills. In the hills proper, the only race to

be found is the Gáro itself, with the exception of one small isolated village called Thápá, which is inhabited by Rábhás. But several villages on the plains, which have recently been included within the boundaries of the District, are peopled by Rábhás, Kochs, Rájbansis, Dálus, Mechs, and a few Musalmáns. All these tribes possess ethnical features in common with the Gáros, but the latter retain sufficient national characteristics to be classed as a people by themselves. They are thought to represent the primitive stock, of which the Rábhá, Mech, and Koch represent offshoots that have been modified by life on the plains and contact with Hinduism. According to local tradition, the Gáro Hills were once occupied by Kochs, who were gradually driven northward by an invasion of Gáros; and it is a fact that the Kochs at the present day claim land in the hills.

The Gáros proper are a robust and active race, capable of enduring a great amount of exertion. They are of about the middle height, and of a dark-brown swarthy colour. Neither the men nor women have any pretensions to good looks. Their cheekbones are prominent, noses broad, lips thick, ears large, and eyes of a hazel colour. The men are remarkable for deficiency of beard, whatever hair grows on the face being carefully plucked out. The hair of the head with both sexes is never cut, but either tied up in a knot or kept off the face by means of a piece of cloth. The dress of the men consists merely of a strip of home-spun cotton cloth, about a yard and a half in length, which is passed round the waist and between the legs, and then tied at the back. The dress of the women only differs in being slightly more extensive. In addition, both sexes carry a small blanket, usually made from the bark of a tree. This is manufactured by steeping the bark in water, beating it out, and afterwards drying it well in the sun. In the eastern hills, the Gáros have adopted the short fringed jacket, which is characteristic of the Khásiás. Both men and women are inordinately fond of personal ornaments. The males wear three or four brass ear-rings, and as many bead necklaces as they can afford. Men of hereditary rank wear an iron or brass armlet above the elbow, and a peculiar ornament round the head, which consists of brass plates connected by a string. It is said that this last may only be assumed by one who has slain an enemy in battle. The women wear, besides necklaces of glass and bell-metal beads, ear-rings of enormous size and weight. It is a coveted mark of distinction to have the lobe of the ear altogether torn away by the strain thus caused, in which case the ear-rings are suspended from a string passed over the top of the head. The weapons of the Gáros consist of spear, sword, and shield. The sword, which is peculiar to these hills, is a two-edged instrument with an abrupt point, the blade and handle forming one piece. Besides being a weapon, it is used for every variety of domestic and agricultural purpose. The shield is com-

posed of thin strips of bamboo ingeniously worked together, so as to be almost proof against a spear-thrust. In the back of the shield is a receptacle for bamboo spikes, which form an essential item in the equipment of a Gáro warrior. These spikes are intended to be planted in the ground, so as to block the way against a shoeless enemy; and they have been found to answer their purpose very effectually. In food, the Gáros may be styled omnivorous; they eat not only beef and pork, but also tigers, dogs, snakes, and frogs. Their staple diet is rice, and their drink rice beer. Milk they altogether eschew, as do all the aboriginal races inhabiting the hills between the Surmá and Brahmaputra. They are great smokers of tobacco, but touch no intoxicating drug. Their villages are usually placed on the side of a hill, some distance from the crest, and within easy reach of water. The houses, as is the case among many other tribes of the north-east frontier, are built on piles, and are frequently of considerable size. The materials are bamboo and thatch. The structure is usually divided into the following compartments:—A large room where the family live, an apartment for the women, a place where the cattle are kept, and verandahs in front and behind. A rude fireplace, consisting merely of smoothed clay, occupies the middle of the house; and the smoke is left to escape as best it can. During the agricultural season, the entire body of villagers occupy temporary huts in the immediate neighbourhood of the common cultivation.

The most remarkable domestic custom of the Gáros is one which they share with the Khásiás. The wife is regarded as the head of the family, and through her the descent of property is traced. This custom is apparently a survival of the system of polyandry. That system still exists intact among Himálayan tribes; for example, among the tribes between Simla and Tibet. It is also practised among the Nairs and the aboriginal Todas of Southern India. According to this system when in full force, a woman is the lawful wife of a family of brethren, and a man's property descends, not to his own, but to his sister's children. Among tribes who have advanced so far as to give up the practice of polyandry, but who still preserve its traditions, it leaves behind curious customs of inheritance, such as that just described among the Gáros and Khásiás. Property still descends through the females, and the sons receive nothing, but have to look to the family into which they marry for their advancement in life. As among the Khásiás, the women enjoy a position of the highest consideration in all domestic matters, and it is said that their voice has great weight also in public councils. Marriages are arranged by the parents, and concluded when the parties are of fit age. No dower is demanded on either side. The husband immediately migrates to the house of his wife's family, and becomes one of her clan. Intermarriages between

members of the same clan are not permitted, but otherwise no regard is paid to the ties of consanguinity. A second wife cannot be taken without the consent of the first. Adultery is punished by a fine.

The funeral ceremonies of the Gáros imply the belief in a future state. The body is burned, and the ashes finally buried near the hut-door. At the time of cremation, dogs are sacrificed, in order that they may direct the spirit on his way. Up to a very recent period, human victims were offered on the occasion of the death of a chief. If no slaves were available, a foray was made into the plains to bring back heads. The Gáros believe in a supreme being called Saljang, who is impersonated in the sun. But the real objects of their religion are numerous malignant demons, to whom is attributed every physical and moral evil, and whose wrath requires to be appeased by bloody sacrifices. It is the duty of the priest or *kamál* to determine by certain omens which particular evil spirit is at work, to arrange the ceremonies, and repeat the necessary incantations. Like the aborigines of Central India, the Gáros are excessively superstitious, and believe in the existence of witches and imps of all kinds. They have a curious idea that certain persons are capable of leaving their human frames, and taking up their abode in the body of a tiger or other animal.

The Gáro villages vary greatly in size. Some may have as many as 2000, others no more than 30 inhabitants. TURA STATION, with only 744 inhabitants, is the only place possessing any special characteristics. It is situated on a spur of the Turá range, about 2000 feet above sea-level, and the same distance from the summit. It contains houses for the Deputy Commissioner, Police and Medical Officers, barracks and huts for 200 constables, and the school-house of the American Mission. The stockade by which it was originally protected, and a small outpost station, have now been suffered to fall into decay. Water is plentiful in the immediate neighbourhood, and an aqueduct has recently been cut, running right through the station.

Agriculture, etc.—The Gáros cultivate their land on the system known as *júm*. A spot of land is selected on the hill-side, and the jungle cut down during the cold season. Towards the end of March, the trees and brushwood are burned as they lie; and the rice crop is planted in April, at the commencement of the rains. Shortly afterwards, the seeds of vegetables, cotton, pepper, and pulses are sown in the same clearing; and each crop is reaped in rotation, as it comes to maturity. In the second year, rice only is grown; and after two years' cultivation, the clearing is abandoned and suffered to lie fallow for about ten years. The sole implement of agriculture is the large knife or sword, called *áte* by the Gáros. Neither plough nor spade is used, except in the few Hinduized villages bordering on the plains. The rice crop generally raised corresponds to the *áus* of Bengal; the out-

turn is estimated at about $4\frac{1}{2}$ cwts. per acre, valued at 15s. The cotton is short in staple and poor in quality, but has been found suited for mixing with woollen fabrics. Several experiments have been made with seed from Hinganghát, but hitherto without any success. The attempted introduction of the Khásiá potato has also resulted in failure. Among miscellaneous crops may be mentioned—*arhar* (Cajanus indicus), reared as food for the lac insect, indigo, ginger, turmeric, and *pán* or betel-leaf. Domestic animals are not used for agriculture. Cattle are purchased from the plains for sacrifice; pigs, goats, and fowls are reared for food. Every village contains several watch-dogs, and numbers of dogs are imported from the plains for food.

There are but few regular day-labourers in the District. A fair remuneration for the Gáro casually engaged to carry baggage, would be from 4d. to 6d. a day. The work at the station is mainly carried on by coolies imported from the plains, but Gáros now visit Turá in small numbers in search of work. The Gáros have no weights nor measures of quantity, but they are extremely acute in guessing the amount of the commodities they barter with Bengali traders. In 1881, the price of the best cleaned rice at Turá was 13s. 8d. per cwt.; of common rice, 5s. 6d. per cwt.

No such calamity as blight, flood, or drought sufficient to cause famine has been known to occur in the Gáro Hills, although distress has occasionally occurred, as in 1879, when the remoter villages on the north-eastern boundary suffered to some extent. The country is well watered both by streams and rainfall, but the average harvest of rice is barely sufficient for the local consumption. In the improbable contingency of distress from a failure of the *áus* crop, the inhabitants could be best relieved by the establishment of food depôts at the hill passes, which would prevent a turbulent population from crowding into the plains. A bridle-path joins Turá with Dhubrí in the Assam valley, and there is also a cart-road to Dalu in Maimansingh District. Along the former route the telegraph line will be laid. The latter is the line by which Turá draws its supply of food. In 1882, means of communication were afforded by 156 miles of navigable rivers, 37 miles of first-class, and 31 miles of second-class roads.

Manufactures, etc.—There are no special local manufactures in the hills. The Gáro women weave a coarse cotton cloth for the scanty garments of themselves and the men, using a loom which has evidently been borrowed from Bengal. The cloth is dyed blue with indigo, and generally ornamented with red stripes. A rude pottery is made in certain villages, but all metal utensils are imported. The District trade is entirely conducted at the small markets situated at the passes leading into the plains. The principal articles of export are—cotton, timber, boats, bamboos, firewood, rubber, and lac; the imports received

in exchange consist of—rice, dried fish, cattle, goats, fowls, pigs, cloth, and ornaments. The raw cotton grown on the *júms* is brought up by Márwárí merchants, to be shipped to Sirájganj. In 1881, about 30,000 cwts. of uncleaned cotton were exported, valued at 11s. per cwt. The exports of lac are estimated at about 1600 cwts., worth about £3 per cwt.

Administration.—In the year 1869-70, the total revenue derived from the Gáro Hills was £798, while the expenditure on administration amounted to £6476. By 1881 the revenue had risen to £5041, of which £610 was collected on account of certain *zamíndárs* in Goálpárá District; and the expenditure to £13,271.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season generally lasts from about the middle of June to the end of October, but occasional showers set in as early as May. The cold weather lasts from November to February; and the months of March and April are usually dry and warm. During the ten years ending 1881, the average annual rainfall registered at Turá station was 126·25 inches. The chief diseases affecting strangers to the hills are fevers of a malarious type, sometimes complicated with enlargement of the spleen or liver, diarrhœa, dysentery, rheumatism, chest affections, and ulcers. The Gáros, in addition, suffer from bronchocele and elephantiasis. In 1871, a severe epidemic of cholera broke out at the station of Turá. Out of 80 persons attacked, as many as 32 died. [For a further account of the Gáro Hills, see Hunter's *Statistical Account of Assam* (London: Trübner & Co., 1879).]

Garol.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. It has been lately transferred to the Pánch Maháls District; but the tribute of £3 is still paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda through the Rewá Kántha Agency.

Garolá. — Rent-free estate in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; consisting of one village, with an area of 5479 acres, and yielding a yearly revenue of £164. Population (1881) 1017; number of houses, 235. The village became the head-quarters of a tract bestowed by the Emperor of Delhi on Ráo Kám Chandra, the greater part of which was resumed by the Peshwá in 1746. Garolá contains a small fort, and is surrounded by a stone wall. To the east is a fine lake, covering 76 acres; the soil around is fertile. Government school for boys.

Garotha.—The north-eastern *tahsíl* of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a hilly country, gradually sloping down to the plains along the Betwa and the Dhasán rivers, and much intersected by native territory. Area, 501 square miles, of which 232 are cultivated. Population (1881) 87,897, namely, males 45,591, and females 42,306; number of villages, 176. Land revenue, £13,965;

total Government revenue, £15,340; rental paid by cultivators, £29,231.

Garrauli.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand in the Central India Agency, under the Government of India. Gopál Singh, the first *jágírdár*, and the father of the present chief, was one of the most active and daring of the military adventurers who opposed the occupation of Bundelkhand by the British in 1803. He had been in the service of Darjan Singh and Hari Singh, the grandsons of Chhatarsál Singh, in Jáso; and on the invasion of Alí Bahádur, he seized the *parganá* of Kotrá for himself. For years he resisted all efforts of persuasion or force to reduce him to submission; but being at last convinced of the hopelessness of the unequal contest, he submitted on condition of obtaining a full pardon and a provision in land. Accordingly, in 1812, he received the grant of the Garrauli *jágír*. He was succeeded by his son, Diwán Bahádur Parichit, a Hindu of the Bundela caste, who is the present chief or *jágírdár*. He has received a *sanad* of adoption. The State contains an area of 25 square miles, with 16 villages and 913 houses. Total population (1881) 4976, namely, Hindus, 4779; Muhammadans, 195; and aborigines, 2. Estimated revenue of the chief, £1600. The military force consists of 75 men.

Garúda-giri (or *Gardan-giri*).—Hill peak in Kádúr District, Mysore State; 3680 feet above sea-level. Latitude 13° 29′ N., longitude 76° 17′ E.

Garúdanadi (or *Gaddilam*).—River in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. It rises in the Yegal Tank, in Kallakurchi *táluk*, and is fed by the Mallatár, which connects it with the Ponniár. Its bed is sandy, and its banks for the most part low. After a course of 59 miles, passing on its way Fort St. David and Cuddalore, it falls into the Bay of Bengal.

Garumári.—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam; containing valuable *sál* timber (Shorea robusta). Area, 205·18 acres.

Garvi.—Petty Bhíl (Bheel) State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Garwá.—Town and municipality on the Dauro river, Lohárdagá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 9′ 45″ N., long. 83° 51′ 10″ E. The chief distributing centre for the surplus produce of Palámau Sub-division, and of a great part of Sargujá and the tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur. Population (1881) 6043, namely, Hindus, 4977; Muhammadans, 1063; 'others,' 3. Area of town site, 2412 acres. The Garwá market is held in the dry season, on the sands of the Dauro river; and here sticklac, resin, catechu, cocoons of *tasar* silk, hides, oil-seeds, *ghí*, cotton, and iron are collected for exportation; the imports are food-grains, brass vessels, piece-goods, blankets, silk, salt, tobacco,

spices, drugs, etc. Municipal revenue (1882-83) £225, or 8¾d. per head of population.

Gathar.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) under 2000. Lies on the Kambar-Nasirábád road. Well known for its rice.

Gauháli.—*Mewás* State, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area unknown; population (1881) 1946; supposed gross revenue, £2200. The country is extremely mountainous, covered with dense forests, and only partially cultivated. Principal produce, timber and bamboos, for the most part sold in the Taloda market. Climate unhealthy. The chief is a Bhíl Hindu of the Girás family, and holds no patent allowing adoption. He resides at Raisinghpur. He is one of the superior chiefs of Khándesh; and being a minor, the State is for the present under the direct management of the Political Agent.

Gauháti (*Gowhatty*).—Chief town of Kámrúp District, Assam; situated on both sides of the Brahmaputra, but principally on the left or south bank, in lat. 26° 11′ N., and long. 91° 48′ E. Population (1881) 11,695, namely, Hindus, 9220; Muhammadans, 2333; and Christians, 142. Area of town site, 2172 acres. Municipal taxation (1882-83), £1347; average rate of taxation, 2s. 2½d. per head. Gauháti was the ancient capital of the Hindu kingdom of Assam previous to the conquest of the western portion of the valley by the Ahams. It then became the seat of the Bar Phúkan, or Viceroy of the Aham kings, whose capital was in Sibságar District. When Assam was conquered from the Burmese in 1825, Gauháti was selected as the head-quarters of the administration of the Province. On the constitution of the Chief-Commissionership of Assam in 1874, the administrative head-quarters were removed to Shillong in the Khási Hills. Gauháti is, with the exception of Barpetá in the same District, the most populous town in the Brahmaputra valley, and spreads over an area of 2 square miles. According to local tradition, it is identified with the city of Prayágajyotishapura, the capital of King Naraka and his son Bhagadáttá, monarchs mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*. Of its former glories, whether as the capital of a Hindu King or of an Aham Viceroy, the only relics which exist are the mounds and extensive lines of brick fortifications which lie scattered along the banks of the Brahmaputra. The gateways which gave access to the enclosures within the fortifications, and which existed at the beginning of the present century, have now entirely disappeared. A large proportion of the soil in the cultivated fields in the neighbourhood is composed of brick, mortar, and pottery; and carved stones and beautifully-finished slabs, the remains of once noble temples, are frequently found beneath the surface. The numerous tanks, which attest the command of labour possessed by its former rulers, are now, in many cases, choked up with weeds and jungle, or are entirely effaced

by a false though luxuriant soil that floats on the stagnant waters concealed beneath.

The site of the town is regarded, with some justice, as very unhealthy. The Brahmaputra is here almost surrounded by a circle of hills to the north, west, and east, and the basin thus formed is cut off from the breezes which at other points on the river purify the atmosphere. The houses of the European residents are situated along the southern bank of the Brahmaputra, on comparatively high ground; the *bázárs* lie behind them inland; and beyond these, for a distance of six or seven miles, to the skirts of the Khási Hills, stretches a malarious swamp, partly cultivated with rice, and partly covered with marsh vegetation. Some improvement has been effected in recent years in the sanitation and drainage of the town, and in cleaning and improving the tanks in its immediate neighbourhood. Projects for a more extensive drainage, and for the provision of a pure water-supply, are now (1883) under consideration, and a matured scheme has been drawn up and submitted to the Chief Commissioner, with an application for a loan. Gauháti was formerly a military station, occupied by one of the Assam regiments, but the cantonments have now been abandoned, with the exception of a few military buildings for the accommodation of troops passing through. Gauháti is an important centre of river trade, and one of the largest seats of commerce in Assam. In 1876-77, European piece-goods were imported to the value of £16,000, and cotton twist to the value of £10,500. No later statistics of local traffic are available, the river traffic being now registered only at the border of the Province. An excellent cart road leads south to Shillong, a distance of 63½ miles. The High School at Gauháti formerly possessed a College Department, teaching up to the university examinations; but it was very poorly attended, excessively expensive, and was abolished by Colonel Keatinge, Chief Commissioner of the Province, the money thus saved being expended to better advantage in primary and middle-class education. There is also a Persian School frequented by the children of a small body of Muhammadans settled here. In the immediate neighbourhood of the town is a frequented place of Hindu pilgrimage, the temple of Kámákhyá (a name of Durgá). A picturesque temple to Siva, under the title of Umánanda, situated on a rocky island in the mid-channel of the Brahmaputra, immediately opposite the centre of the town, is also an object of veneration.

Gaur (or *Lakhnauti*).—Ruined city and ancient capital of Bengal, Maldah District; situated on a deserted channel of the Ganges, in lat. 24° 52′ N., long. 88° 10′ E. The time of the foundation of the city is involved in obscurity, and the whole course of its history, down to the day when it was finally deserted, is only to be conjectured. With

regard to its origin, it is known that it was the metropolis of Bengal under its Hindu kings. Local traditions connect some of its ruins with the oft-recurring names of Adisúr, Ballal Sen, and Lakshman. The most ancient name for the city itself seems to have been Lakshmanáwatí, corrupted into Lakhnauti. The name Gaur is also of great antiquity, but it is probable that this name was more strictly applicable to the kingdom (called Gauriya Bengala) than to the city. The ascertained history of Gaur begins with its conquest in 1204 A.D. by the Muhammadans, who retained it as the chief seat of their power in Bengal for more than three centuries. At the close of this period were erected the numerous mosques and other Muhammadan buildings, which yet remain in a tolerable state of preservation. When the Afghán kings of Bengal established their independence, they transferred the seat of government to PANDUAH, a Hindu outpost of Gaur, also in Maldah District and to build the public structures of their new capital, plundered Gaur of every monument that could be removed. Hence it is, that while the ruins of Panduah are covered with stones bearing Hindu sculptures, scarcely a single relic has been found on the site of Gaur that could be definitely referred to a Hindu building. Panduah was soon afterwards deserted, and the royal residence re-transferred to Gaur, which continued, under the name of Janatábád, to be the capital of Bengal so long as its Muhammadan kings retained their independence. During the latter years of the Afghán dynasty, the seat of government was again removed to TANDAN or Tangra, a few miles south-west of Gaur, on the bank of the then main channel of the Ganges, which was gradually receding farther and farther west, and disturbing the drainage of the country east of its course.

This change of the seat of government was made on account of the change in the course of the Ganges, and the alteration of the face of the country and of communications, as well as owing to the unhealthiness of Gaur from its malarious surroundings, after the recession of the Ganges. The fall of Gaur was hastened by its being sacked by Sher Sháh and his Afgháns in 1537. It finally disappears from history in 1575. During these last years of its greatness, it suffered many vicissitudes. It was plundered by its own kings, repeatedly besieged, and more than once taken by storm. Dáúd Khán was the last of the Afghán dynasty. His refusal to pay homage to the Mughal Emperor at Delhi led to the final subjugation of Bengal. A large army under Mana'im Khán finally defeated Dáúd in 1575, and occupied during the rainy and unhealthy season the already decaying city of Gaur. A pestilence broke out, by which thousands of the troops and inhabitants died daily. The people were unable to bury or burn the dead; corpses of Hindus and Musalmáns were thrown into the moats and tanks, and into the adjoining river Bhágírathí. The few

people that survived the plague left the city, which was never again populated to any extent. The imperial general, who had resolved to maintain Gaur as the seat of government, and to restore its former magnificence, fell a victim to the general contagion.

Henceforth the name of Gaur is scarcely to be found in Muhammadan annals, and the city was never reoccupied after this depopulation. Such appears to be the true account of the desertion of Gaur. But Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton discredits the story of the pestilence, and states that the Mughal viceroys of Bengal used occasionally to reside at the fortified palace at Gaur; and that as late as 1639, Sháh Shujá, the brother of Aurangzeb, added buildings to the palace fort in the city. This prince made Rájmahal the capital of Bengal; and from that time, according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, dates the actual abandonment and desolation of Gaur. He thinks that 'the city then went to instant ruin, not from any great or uncommon calamity, but merely from the removal of the seat of government.' The ruins have been a quarry, not only for the brick houses of the neighbouring towns and villages, but also for the mosques, palaces, and public monuments of Murshidábád. It is said that the Commercial Residency at ENGLISH BAZAR was constructed with bricks from Gaur. Dense jungle now reigns supreme over the half broken-down ruins of walls, forts, and palaces. Tigers, rock pythons, and pelicans were the chief inhabitants of Gaur for centuries; but during the last twenty years, extensive clearances of jungle have been effected, and the whole area of the city is now more or less under cultivation. As the few ruins left crumble away, and as cultivation extends, only the ramps and ditches and old tanks, and remains of roads, will mark the site of the city of Gaur.

The ruins were first explored by Mr. H. Creighton in 1801, and afterwards by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton in 1810. This latter gentleman has left an elaborate description of the ruins as they then appeared, from which the following account is mainly condensed. It must be remembered, however, that their dilapidation, partly from natural causes, but chiefly by the hand of man, has rapidly advanced since that time.

The city, with its suburbs, covered an area variously estimated at from 20 to 30 square miles. The situation is somewhat elevated, and the soil is clay, affording good material for bricks, and well suited to preserve the houses from inundation, and the site of the city from diluvion. Countless millions of small, thin bricks were used in building Gaur. The dimensions of the city proper, *i.e.* the part within the great continuous embankment (partly natural and partly artificial), were about $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length from north to south, and from 1 to 2 miles in breadth, giving a total area of about 13 square miles. The west side of the city was throughout washed by the main stream of the Ganges, the eastern side being protected partly by the Mahánadá and partly by a line of

perennial swamps, which were formerly a channel of the Ganges. To the south but little protection was needed, for the junction a little lower down of the Mahánandá and the Ganges would have prevented an invader from choosing such a circumscribed base of operations. To the north, which was the most accessible quarter, an artificial bulwark was required. A line of fortifications, about 6 miles in length, extends in an irregular curve from the old channel of the Bhágírathí at Sontálá to near the Mahánandá at Bholahát. This rampart, mainly composed of brick, is about 100 feet wide at its base. At each end, where it touches on the rivers, it is cut off by a ditch 120 feet wide. At the north-east part of this curve is a gate, protected by a strong projecting outwork in the form of a quadrant, through which a high embanked road passes north and south. This outwork contains many tanks, and the monument of a Muhammadan saint. It seems to have been the station of the police officer who had charge of this part of the city.

Near the north-east corner of the outwork, at the confluence of the Kálindrí with the Mahánandá, stands a *minár* or tower, which, although now fallen to ruin, still presents a striking object as viewed from the ferry at Minásarái. North of the rampart, and entirely apart from the city, are the sites of two isolated ruins, connected with the names of Adisúr and Ballal Sen, early Hindu kings of Bengal. Close by is the site of the ruins of the palace where Ballal Sen is said to have resided, consisting, like the palace at Dacca, of a square of about 400 yards, surrounded by a ditch. Behind the rampart is the northern suburb of the city. It is of vast extent, in the shape of a quadrant of a circle, with an area of about 6000 yards. It does not appear to have been at any time thickly inhabited. The eastern portion is now occupied by marshes; but the western portion, near the Bhágírathí, is enclosed by earthworks, and contains many public buildings. Here is situated the large Ságar Díghí, the most celebrated artificial piece of water in Bengal. It was formed by uniformly deepening, and embanking from north to south, natural hollows existing in the high clay lands. The place was probably used extensively for a long time for brickmaking before it was converted into a tank. Its dimensions are almost 1600 yards from north to south, and more than 800 from east to west. The banks are built of brick, and the water remains pure and sweet to the present day. This was a Hindu structure; and in the neighbourhood are the two most frequented places of Hindu pilgrimage in the District, namely, Vádullápur *ghát* and the Durbasine shrine. The banks, however, are now occupied with Muhammadan buildings, of which the most conspicuous is the tomb of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál, a saint who is stated to have exercised great influence in the time of the early Musalmán kings of Bengal. Near this tomb is a small mosque. Both these buildings are supported

by an endowment, and tolerably well cared for. Opposite this suburb, at a market-place now called Sádullápur, is the chief descent (*ghát*) to the old bed of the Ganges. To this spot dead bodies of Hindus are still brought from great distances to be buried. It is said to have been the only burning *ghát* allowed to the Hindus in Gaur by their Muhammadan rulers.

Immediately to the south lies the city itself, which, towards each suburb and along the Ganges, has been defended by a strong rampart and ditch. On the side facing the Mahánandá the rampart has been double, and in most parts there have been two immense ditches, and in some parts three. These works were designed for embankments against inundation, and were utilized for drains and for fortifications. The double embankment appears to have been constructed to prevent the Ganges from cutting away the site of Gaur, when the main body of its water east of the city began to gravitate westwards. This is known to have occurred in the early part of the sixteenth century. The hardness of the clay highlands on which Gaur was built, and these works, resisted encroachments by the river ; and the Ganges cut fresh channels west of the embanked city, instead of sweeping away and levelling the city as might have been expected. The base of the outer embankment was in one place measured by Mr. Creighton, and found to be 150 feet thick.

By far the greater portion of the 13 square miles thus enclosed appears to have been thickly inhabited. Small tanks are everywhere to be seen, as well as many foundations of houses and the remains of small places of worship. Broad roadways from east to west traverse this northern part of the city at irregular intervals. There were also communications by water within the city, and a regular system of internal drainage for carrying off the rain-water to the large natural and artificial reservoirs. In the southern part there have been numerous roads, raised very high, and so wide that, in many places, small buildings of brick were erected, with rows of trees in front, on their sides. These were probably chapels, or other places of public resort ; while the dwelling-houses were huddled together along the sides of the tanks. Somewhat to the south, on the banks of the Bhágírathí, was the citadel or *kilá*, a work evidently of the Muhammadan period. It extends about a mile in length from north to south, by about 600 to 800 yards broad. The rampart which encircles this area has been very strongly built of brick, with many flanking angles and round bastions at the corners. The palace, at the south-east corner of the citadel, was surrounded by a wall of brick about 40 feet high and 8 feet thick. In the interior, the remains of several cross-walls are visible, but the arrangement of the apartments cannot be ascertained. Indeed, almost the whole site is now under cultivation. A little north of the palace are

the royal tombs, where Husain Sháh and other independent kings of Bengal lie buried. This building has been almost entirely destroyed, but it had evidently considerable pretensions to elegance. The floor was paved with stone, and the graves were covered with slabs of polished hornblende. Not one of these stones, however, now remains. Within the citadel, also, are two mosques, the larger of which has fallen into ruins. The smaller, built by Husain Sháh, or by his successor, Nazrat Sháh, known as the Kadam Rásúl Mosque, is in good preservation, being supported by an adequate endowment. Just outside the east wall of the citadel stands a lofty tower of brick, up the centre of which runs a winding stair leading to a chamber at the summit. It is known as the Pír Asá Manára, but no object is assigned for its erection by the natives. Mr. Fergusson, however, in his *History of Eastern Architecture*, states that it is evidently a pillar of victory, a Jayá Stambhá, such as the Kutab Minár at Delhi.

About a mile and a half north of the citadel is a place of 600 square yards, surrounded by a rampart and ditch, known as the Flower-Garden. South-east of this is the Piyásbárí, or 'Abode of Thirst,' a tank of considerable dimensions, but containing bad brackish water. A tradition states that condemned criminals were allowed to drink nothing but water from this tank, and thus perished of thirst. There are many other large tanks within the city walls, some containing crocodiles, which are fed by the resident *fákírs*. Of these, the finest is the small Ságar Díghí, which is inferior in size only to the tank of the same name in the north suburb. Between the Piyásbárí and the citadel is the Great Golden Mosque, reckoned the grandest building in Gaur. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton thought its proportions mean. It is 180 feet from north to south, 60 feet from east to west, and 20 feet high to the top of the cornice. It is a perfect parallelopiped without projection or recess, except that it was formerly covered with 33 domes. The only other structure of interest is the fine central gate in the south wall of the city. It is called the Kotwálí Darwázá, presumably from the circumstance that the superintendent of police was stationed here. This gate is still in good preservation (1883).

Southwards from this gate stretches an immense suburb as far as Pukhariyá, a distance of about 7 miles. Its width is comparatively small, but it bears abundant traces of having been at one time densely populated. It was called Firozpur, from Firoz Sháh, the second of the two kings of Bengal of that name. Towards the east and south lay an embankment and ditch, probably designed to ward off the floods, which have now created large marshes in that direction. This southern suburb contains a good number of public buildings. The most prominent among these are the Lesser Golden Mosque, which Dr.

Buchanan-Hamilton describes as 'one of the neatest pieces of architecture in the whole place;' and the tomb of Niámat-ullá-Wáli. This person was the spiritual guide of Sháh Shujá, and his monument, which is small and clumsy, is to this day carefully tended by his descendants.

Such are the ruins of Gaur. No doubt many of the accounts of its vast population are oriental exaggerations. But even according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who places the inhabited area at 20 square miles, it would have contained over 600,000 or 700,000 souls. The actual city of Gaur was long entirely deserted, and was formerly overgrown with dense jungle; but cultivation is gradually spreading, and clusters of habitations and new villages are appearing here and there amid the ruins of the ancient city.

Gaura.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* GORA.

Gaura Jamún.—*Parganá* in Musafirkhána *tahsíl*, Sultánpur District, Oudh. Area, 93 square miles, of which 49 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 47,749, namely, males 23,282, and females 24,467; average density, 513 persons per square mile; 91 villages. Land revenue, £6153.

Gaurangdihi.—Hills in Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Three conical hills at a village of the same name, 24 miles from Bánkurá, on the road to Raghunáthpur; about 300 feet above the level of the surrounding country, covered with tree jungle, and so steep as to be only accessible to men. Lat. 23° 26′ N., long. 86° 48′ 45″ E.

Gaurihár.—One of the petty States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency; situated between 25° 14′ and 25° 26′ N. lat., and between 80° 12′ and 80° 21′ E. long. It is bounded on the east by Bánda District and part of Hamírpur, on the north and west by Bánda, and on the south by the Chhatarpur State. The area of the State is 72·7 square miles; it contains 14 villages and 1903 houses. Total population (1881) 10,691, namely, Hindus, 10,295; Muhammadans, 394; 'others,' 2. The estimated revenue of the chief is £5000 a year. The predecessor of the last ruler was a guerilla leader of importance during the period of anarchy in Bundelkhand which prevailed at the close of the last century. He received a grant of the Gaurihár *jágír* in 1807. The last chief, Ráo Bahádur Rudra Singh, did good service, at great personal loss, during the Mutiny of 1857; for which he received the title of Ráo Bahádur, a dress of honour worth Rs. 10,000, and the privilege of adoption, which was subsequently confirmed by *sanad*. Rudra Singh died in 1877, and was succeeded by an adopted son, Gajadhar Prasád, the present chief. He maintains a military force of 3 guns, 35 cavalry, and 240 foot soldiers. Gaurihár town is situated in lat. 25° 16′ N., and long. 80° 14′ E.

Gauripur.—Village in Goálpárá District, Assam, on the right bank

of the Gadádhar river. Lat. 26° 11′ N., long. 90° 7′ E. Population (1881) 1900. It is the residence of one of the wealthiest landowners in the District, and a busy centre of river traffic. A large trading fair is held here during the *Durgá-Pujá* festival in October or November. In 1876-77, Gauripur exported to Sirájganj, in Pábná District, 28,900 *maunds* of jute.

Gavipur.—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore State; 1 mile southwest of the fort of Bangalore. Latitude 12° 56′ N., longitude 77° 36′ E. Population (1881) 624. Celebrated for the cave-temple of Gavi Gangádharesvara, constructed in the time of Kempe Gauda (1537). The emblems of Siva—the trident, the umbrella, and the double drum—are carved out of the solid rock on a colossal scale, each being 15 feet high.

Gavridár.—Petty State in Hálár *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 6 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Population (1881) 3055. The original seat of the chiefs of Pálitána, with which place it is connected by a made road. Mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* and the *Mirát-i-Ahmadi*. Estimated revenue, £1300; tribute of £101 payable to the British Government, and £61 to Junágarh.

Gáwilgarh.—Hill range, a branch of the Sátpura mountains, in Berár; situated between 21° 10′ and 21° 46′ 30″ N. latitude, and between 76° 40′ and 77° 53′ E. longitude; so named from the Gauli tribe. Immediately east of Betúl District the Sátpuras divide into two distinct chains—the one running on to the west coast between, and nearly parallel to, the Tápti and Narbadá (Nerbudda) rivers; whilst the other, passing in a south-westerly direction through Betúl, the Melghát or upland country of Ellichpur, and the southern portion of Nimár, terminates at the junction of the Tápti with its principal tributary, the Púrna. In Melghát, the crest of the range attains an average elevation of 3400 feet above sea-level, the highest point, Bairát, being 3987 feet. The main height of the lower hills, bordering upon the Tápti, is about 1650 feet. The chief passes are—Malhára on the east, Dulghát on the west, and Bingára on the extreme west; the first two have been made practicable for wheeled vehicles; several other roads are in course of completion or projected, which will open out this difficult portion of country entirely. There are also several smaller intermediate tracks, used by the Korkús in bringing their wood and forest produce for sale in the markets at the foot of the hills.

Gáwilgarh.—Hill fortress in the Gáwilgarh range, in the Melghát Sub-division of Ellichpur District, Berár; situated on the watershed between the Púrna and Tápti rivers. Latitude 21° 21′ 30″ N., longitude 77° 24′ 30″ E.; elevation, 3595 feet above sea-level. The hill was first fortified

by the Gaulís, a tribe from whom it takes its name, and who are still numerous here. The fortress, however, dates from 1420, its construction being assigned to Ahmad Sháh of the Báhmani dynasty. It was held at different times by the Nizám and the Maráthás, being captured from the latter by the British in December 1803. At that time it consisted of one complete inner fort facing the steepest part of the mountain, covered by an outer fort, defending its approaches to the north and north-west. The walls were strongly built, and fortified by towers and ramparts. The communications with the fort are through three gates —one to the south with the inner fort, one to the north-west with the outer fort, and one to the north—and by a road made, after the capture, up the western face of the hills. A handsome mosque occupies one of the highest points of the fort, and in it are eight tanks, four only of which contain water during the warm season. The march of General Stevenson up the hills through the Malhára Pass eastward of Gáwilgarh, and round to Labáda on the northern side of the fort, is described by Sir Arthur Wellesley as one of the most difficult, as well as successful, operations he had witnessed. The fort was breached by batteries from Labáda, and gallantly carried by storm on the 15th December 1803. The fort was dismantled in 1853, and the only buildings now standing are two mosques, the powder factory, and Shora-khána.

Gayá.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 17′ and 25° 19′ N. lat., and between 84° 4′ and 86° 5′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by Patná District, on the east by Monghyr, on the south and south-east by Lohárdagá and Hazáribágh, and on the west by Sháhábád, the boundary line being formed by the river Son (Soane). Area, 4712 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 2,124,682. The chief place in the District is GAYA town, but the civil station and administrative headquarters are at Sáhibganj, which is distinct from, although adjoining Gayá town.

Physical Aspects.—The southern boundary of Gayá is formed by an irregular ridge of hills of no great height, but prettily wooded, and full of game. These hills may be regarded as part of the Vindhyan system, by which the great Gangetic plain is bounded on the south; from them the District slopes gently northward towards the Ganges. The country is generally flat, but here and there hills are found, either isolated or in groups, the higher ones covered with jungle and coarse grass, the others rocky and bare. The loftiest of these peaks is Máher Hill, about 12 miles south-east of Gayá town, which rises to a height of 1620 feet above the sea. The only other remarkable clusters of hills in the District, besides the southern range already referred to, are the Barábár, or, as they are called in old maps, Currumshaw Hills; and a range

which forms portion of the boundary between Gayá and Patná, and contains (on the Patná side) Rájgriha, the famous sacred mount, a place of great antiquarian interest.

The eastern part of Gayá is highly cultivated; the portions to the north and west are less fertile, and the remainder of the District consists of hills and jungles, which are full of wild animals, and in which the hunters collect *tasar* silk, beeswax, resin, gums of all kinds, and the valuable fruit of the *mahuá* tree. This part of the country was formerly thinly peopled and little cultivated, but of late years much of the jungle has been cleared away, and the cultivated area is rapidly increasing. The soil generally is alluvial. Most of the rivers of the District take their rise in the southern mountains, and flow from south to north; the principal of them, however, the Son, which forms the boundary between Gayá and Sháhábád Districts, rises in the Central Provinces. It contains water at all seasons of the year, and in every part of its course; and its channel here is almost equal in size to that of the Ganges. After heavy rains this channel is almost filled, and the rapidity of the current is such as to render up-stream navigation almost impossible. But generally speaking, during the rainy season, boats of twenty tons burthen traverse the whole extent of Gayá District, and small boats of under a ton can navigate throughout the year. The Son derives its name from the golden colour of its sand, with which are intermixed many small pebbles, some of them prettily coloured, and susceptible of polish. The next river of importance is the Púnpún, which rises in the extreme south of the District, and flows in a north-easterly course towards the Ganges. During the driest part of the year there is always some stream; and the water is extensively used for irrigation by the neighbouring villages. Small channels called *pains*, often continuing for a considerable distance, distribute the river water over the fields, or flow into large public reservoirs, *ahars*, where it is stored until required by the cultivators. The Phálgú, formed by the junction of two hill torrents, flows through the District, and is chiefly noteworthy for the reverence in which it is held by the pilgrims who flock in large numbers to Gayá; during the hot weather the stream dries up. The other rivers of the District are the Dhárhár, the Dongá, the Tiliyá, the Dhanarjí, the Shob, the Kúsí, and the Sakrí, all used for irrigation.

Gayá District is traversed by two important lines of canal, the Eastern Main Canal from the Son to the Púnpún river, a distance of 8 miles; and the Patná Canal, which branches off about 4 miles from the Son Canal, and flowing northwards as nearly as possible parallel to the Son, joins the Ganges in Patná District between Bánkipur and Dinapur, after a course of 79 miles, of which 43 miles lie in Gayá District. Another principal branch of the Son Canal system, the Western Main

Canal, takes off from the other side of the river opposite the Eastern Canal, and flows through Sháhábád District. The wild animals of the District comprise tigers, found in the southern hill ranges; leopards and bears in most parts of the District. Antelope and hog are common, and different varieties of deer are numerous in the south. Hyenas abound; wolves are very troublesome, and deaths from these animals are common, especially in Nawáda Sub-division. Smaller game include jungle-fowl, pea-fowl, wild duck, teal, quail, snipe, and partridge.

History.—Materials for the administrative history of Gayá are scanty, as the records were burnt during the Mutiny. After the acquisition of the Province of Behar by the English in 1765, the management was entrusted to a distinguished native, Shitáb Rái. Gayá, as at present constituted, then formed part of the District of Behar, and its history for the first fifty years of British rule does not admit of separation from the Province of the same name. In 1814, the south of the District was placed under the jurisdiction of a special Joint Magistrate, stationed at Sherghátí. In 1825, Gayá was constituted an independent Collectorate, with a jurisdiction including the present Sub-division of Behar. For revenue purposes, the Collector was under the jurisdiction of the Board of Commissioners at Patná and Benares, created in 1817. For judicial purposes, there were native *munsifs*, under a Judge-Magistrate; from whom, again, an appeal lay to the Provincial Civil Court at Patná. In 1829, this Court, and also the Board, were abolished, and their powers were vested in a Commissioner at Patná, acting under the orders of the Board in Calcutta. In 1831, increased powers were given to the Judge-Magistrate of Gayá as a Sessions Judge, and his magisterial powers were made over to the Collector. Thus the present unit of administration, the Magistrate-Collector, was created. In 1845, the offices of Magistrate and Collector were separated, to be reunited by order of the Secretary of State in 1859.

Though Gayá was not the scene of fighting during the Mutiny of 1857, yet an incident took place in the District worthy of record. The Sepoys in the neighbouring cantonments at Dinapur mutinied in July, and escaped into Sháhábád. After the first attack upon them by a British force had resulted in disaster, orders were issued by the Commissioner of Patná to all the civil officers within his jurisdiction to withdraw their establishments and retire on Dinapur. A small garrison of the 64th Regiment, together with a few Sikhs, were then stationed at Gayá town. In obedience to the written orders of the Commissioner, the handful of soldiers and civilians at Gayá started on the road to Patná, leaving behind about 7 *lákhs* of rupees (£70,000) in the treasury. But on the way bolder counsels prevailed. Mr. Money, the Magistrate of the District, and Mr. Hollings, an uncovenanted official

in the opium agency, determined to return to Gayá and save what they could from the general pillage that would inevitably follow upon the abandonment of the town. The detachment of the 64th was also sent back. The town was found still at peace. A few days were spent in providing carriage for the treasure. But the Patná road had become unsafe, and the only means of retreat now open was by the Grand Trunk Road to Calcutta. As soon as the little party had started a second time, they were attacked by a mixed rabble of released prisoners and the former jail-guards. After repulsing the attack, Mr. Money conveyed his treasure safely to Calcutta, where his arrival was welcomed with enthusiasm.

Population.—The population of the District, according to the Census of 1872, was 1,947,824 persons, dwelling in 6530 villages or towns, and 327,845 houses, the average density of the population being 413 persons to the square mile. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 2,124,682, showing an increase of 176,858, or 9·07 per cent., in the nine years. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1882 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 4712 square miles; number of towns and villages, 9657; number of houses, 372,648, of which 346,794 are occupied and 25,854 unoccupied. Total population, 2,124,682, namely, males 1,043,441, and females 1,081,242. Average density of population, 451 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·05; persons per village, 220; houses per square mile, 79·1; persons per house, 6·13. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 1,891,484, or 89·0 per cent., and Muhammadans 213,141, or 11·0 per cent.; Christians and 'others,' 100. Of aboriginal and semi-Hinduized tribes, the most numerous are the Dosádhs, of whom there are 108,249; the Bhuiyás, who number 83,469; and the Kharwárs, 3569. These aborigines, who in religion profess some sort of Hinduism, live chiefly in the south of the District, and support themselves on the produce of the jungles, or by thieving, cattle-lifting, and hunting. The high-caste Hindus include—Bráhmans, 79,750; Rájputs, 114,402; Bábhans, agricultural Bráhmans who have lapsed from pure Brahmanhood by reason of their occupation, 152,646; Baniyás or traders, 49,304; Káyasths, Government officers, clerks and landholders, 43,965.

Among the 79,570 Bráhmans of Gayá are included a number of persons who, though not regular or orthodox Bráhmans, are allowed a kind of brevet rank as such. Of these the most remarkable are the Gayáwáls, of whom there are about 300 families in the District. Although they are held in great esteem at the places of pilgrimage in Gayá town, respectable Bráhmans look down upon them; they live an idle, self-indulgent life, but are very wealthy, extorting large sums out of the numerous pilgrims. A detailed account of the origin and customs of

this curious class of men is to be found in vol. xii. of the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (pp. 35, 49, 77).

The agricultural and pastoral castes include—Goálás, 309,871 in number, the most numerous caste in the District; Koerís, 144,675; Kúrmís, 43,791; Garerís, 15,597; Baruís, 5863; and Málís, 7740. The principal artisan castes are the Barháis, or carpenters, 36,166 in number; Kumbhars, potters, 22,282; Lohárs, blacksmiths, 21,425; and Sonárs, goldsmiths, 15,863. Other respectable Súdra castes, mainly engaged in personal service—Nápits, barbers, 37,838; Dhobís, washermen, 16,733; Kahárs, domestic servants, palanquin-bearers and labourers, 116,961; Málas, 11,906; Kándus, confectioners, 23,784; and Madaks, preparers of parched food-grains, 12,900. Other castes—Telís, oil-sellers, 57,379; Nuniyás, labourers, 16,621; Tátwas, weavers, 5051; Sunrís, wine-sellers, 6643; Pasís, palm toddy sellers, 39,293; Rajwárs, labourers, 43,773; Chamárs, leather dressers and labourers, 78,552. The Muhammadan population are divided into—Sunnís, 207,241; Shiás, 3383; and unspecified, 22,474.

Six towns contain more than 5000 inhabitants—namely, GAYA, with a population (1881) of 76,415; TIKARI, population 12,187; DAUDNAGAR, population 9870; SHERGHATI, population 5862; JAHANABAD, population 5286; and HASUA, population 5019. Of the 9657 towns and villages in the District, 6395 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 2460 from two to five hundred, 629 from five hundred to a thousand, 154 from one to two thousand, 10 from two to three thousand, 3 from three to five thousand, 4 from five to ten thousand, 1 from ten to fifteen thousand, and 1 upwards of fifty thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into six main classes, as follows:—(1) Professional, including Government officers and servants and professional men, 17,481; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house servants, etc., 52,642; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 31,546; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, herdsmen, etc., 283,197; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 84,208; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 157,396 general labourers, and 416,971 male children and persons of no specified occupation), 574,367.

The District of Gayá is full of places of the greatest sanctity. The rocky hills, which here run out far into the plain of the Ganges valley, teem with associations of the prehistoric religion of Buddhism, many of which have been diverted to new objects by modern superstition. The Bráhmans stamped out the Buddhist faith, but they have utilized its local traditions to their own profit. At the present day, the chief pilgrims to the sacred tree at Budh Gayá are devout Maráthás, who come to pray for the souls of their ancestors in purgatory. As a place of Hindu pilgrimage, the town of Gayá is of comparatively modern

interest. The name is derived from that of a pagan monster, whose fate is recorded in the *Váyu Purána*. His only crime was his desire to save sinners from perdition. Accordingly, Brahma himself undertook the task of putting a stop to his career. This he effected by treacherously persuading him to lie down, and then placing a heavy stone upon his body. When the monster struggled to get free, the gods prevailed upon him to keep quiet, by the promise that they would come and take up their abode on the spot, and that all pilgrims who worshipped there should be delivered from the pains of hell. The profitable lesson of this legend has been turned to good account by the Gayáwáls, or Bráhman priests, who possess the monopoly of pointing out the sacred spots, and reciting the appropriate prayers.

The pilgrim who would effectually secure admission for his ancestors into heaven, must scrupulously perform the whole routine of duties, each one of which involves presents to the priest. Before leaving his home, he must first walk five times round his native village, calling upon the souls of his ancestors to accompany him on his journey. Arrived at Gayá, he is forthwith placed in charge of a special Bráhman guide. There are 45 sacred localities, which he should visit in proper order and on particular days. The full round occupies 13 days; but for those who have not sufficient devotion, or sufficient wealth, 38 shrines, two, or even only one, will serve the desired purpose. Each of these sacred places, *bedí*, *tírat*, or *tirtha*, is supposed to represent the footprint of some deity. At each, a *pindá* or ball of rice and water has to be deposited by the pilgrim, while a hymn is chanted by the attendant Bráhman. Some of the spots lie a considerable distance beyond the city walls, on the summit of steep hills, the ascent of which demands not a little enthusiasm on the part of the devotees. Others are crowded together within the walls of old narrow temples. The popularity of Gayá appears to have increased with the growth of the Maráthá power. The records frequently refer to the arrival of Maráthá princes, as matters of political importance during the early years of British rule. Towards the end of last century, a Peshwá is said to have expended £10,000 upon a pilgrimage to Gayá. The average number of pilgrims in the year is now estimated at 100,000; and it has been calculated that a poor man might accomplish the full round at a cost of £2. The pilgrim-tax, varying from about 4s. to 28s. per head, levied under the native government, was abolished during the early years of British rule.

TIKARI, on the Murhar river, contains the fort of the Rájás of Tikárí; JAHANABAD and DAUDNAGAR are chiefly interesting as having formerly contained flourishing cloth factories established by the East India Company. Among the other noteworthy villages in the District are ARWAL on the Son, once famous for its paper and sugar manufactories,

and now the centre of the only indigo concern in Gayá; Deo, the seat of the Rájás of that name, one of the most ancient families in the District; Nawádá, Wazírganj, Bela, Hasúá, and Wárisalíganj, considerable trading places. At BUDDH (or BODH) GAYA, about 6 miles south of Gayá, and a few hundred yards west of the Phálgú or Nilájan river, there are ruins of great sanctity. Here dwelt Sákya Muni, the founder of the Buddhist religion, and here is the *pípal* tree under which he sat in mental abstraction for five years. Here, too, are extensive remains of temples and monuments, and of the Rájásthán or palace, said to be the residence of Dharma Asoka, and some of his successors on the throne of Magadha. Close at hand is a convent, the *mahant* or abbot of which shows the place to visitors. Another place of interest in the District is a temple of great antiquity, which crowns the highest peak of the Barábár Hills. This temple is sacred to Sidheswára, and contains a *lingá* said to have been placed there by Bárá Rájá, the Asar King of Dinájpur. In September, a large fair, attended only by men, is held here. The pilgrims, who number between 10,000 and 20,000, spend a night on the mountain. Near the foot of the hill are some caves cut in the rock about 200 B.C., and in the immediate neighbourhood are a sacred spring and tank, and several sculptures of great interest to the antiquary.

Agriculture.—The most important crop of the District is rice, which is sown in June or early in July. The *bhadái* crop is reaped in August or September; the *kharíf* crop is transplanted in July or August, and cut in December or January. Wheat is sown broadcast in September and October, and reaped in March. Among the other cereals grown are barley, Indian corn, *maruá*, and *kodo*. The chief leguminous crops are *khesári*, gram, peas, and beans. The other crops include yams and potatoes, hemp and flax, cotton, oil-seeds, opium, indigo, sugar-cane, and *pán*. Rotation of crops is common in the District, and irrigation is much practised, the means used being natural and artificial watercourses, reservoirs, and wells. Manure is always used for cotton and opium. The area ordinarily cultivated with rice is about 900,000 acres, producing over 400,000 tons, of which a fourth part is exported; the wheat-growing area has been estimated at nearly 170,000 acres, producing about 60,000 tons, of which about a half is exported; and the area devoted to oil-seeds is about 35,000 acres. The area under opium cultivation in Gayá cannot be given exactly, as the boundaries of the opium sub-divisions are not conterminous with those of the District; but the two sub-divisions of Tehtá and Gayá are almost co-extensive with Gayá District, and the sum of their areas is but little in excess of the opium area. In 1872–73, the area under cultivation in these two opium sub-divisions was 67,858 acres, the amount of crude opium produced being 668 tons,

and the average produce per acre about 22 lbs. In 1880–81, the estimated area under opium in Gayá District was 63,940 acres, the produce amounting to 501 tons, of the value of about £263,250. There is only one indigo factory under European management in the District, and for some unexplained reason the dye here cannot be brought to such a state of perfection as it attains north of the Ganges. The area under sugar-cane has been estimated at 13,000 acres. Speaking roughly, a fifth of the total area of the District still lies uncultivated. A fair out-turn of paddy or unhusked rice from an acre of good land would be 30 cwts., value £2, 14s.; from inferior lands, 18 cwts., value £1, 12s. 5d. The out-turn of wheat or barley, and their value, is much the same as in the case of paddy; but the cultivation of these crops is less expensive, and the net profit to the cultivator is consequently higher. Wages for labour are generally paid in kind. There seems to have been little or no variation in money wages during the last quarter of a century, but at an earlier period they were 25 per cent. less than at present. The money wage of a day-labourer is now 3d., that of a smith, bricklayer, or carpenter, from 4½d. to 6d. per diem. Prices seem to have fallen of late years. In 1859, 1860, and 1870, the prices of the best cleaned rice were respectively 6s. 0½d., 7s. 6d., and 4s. 5d. per cwt.; in the same years the prices of common rice were 5s. 4d., 6s. 10d., and 3s. 9d. per cwt. respectively. Prices, however, were high in 1882, the rates in the month of September for that year being returned at 9s. 4d. per cwt. for best cleaned rice, and 6s. 0⅝d. for common rice.

Natural Calamities.—Gayá does not suffer from blight or flood to any great extent, but droughts are very common, and seriously affect the prospects of the District. The Son Canals, recently completed, will no doubt prevent much of the loss arising from dry seasons. The District suffered considerably from the famine of 1866, and the mortality was increased by an outbreak of cholera which took place in the middle of July in the town of Gayá, and spread through the greater part of the District. The number of recipients of gratuitous relief never exceeded a daily average of 1200, and the average daily number of persons employed on relief works was about 350. The maximum price of common rice was 18s. 6d., and of paddy, 9s. 3d. per cwt.; but prices in Gayá are not by any means a trustworthy index to the pressure from scarcity. The famine of 1873–74 did not affect the District seriously; the food-supply was augmented by private trade, and the Government had only to supplement this supply by a small amount of grain, and by the provision of relief works on the canals.

Commerce and Trade.—No important manufactures are carried on in Gayá. Common brass utensils for home use, black stone ornaments, pottery, *tasar* silk cloth, and rope made of a grass called

sabíh, are manufactured. Cloth and paper were formerly the principal manufactures, but these industries have now almost entirely died out. Soda effloresces in parts of the District, and a considerable quantity of saltpetre is manufactured and despatched to Calcutta. The principal exports are—food-grains of all kinds (especially rice), oil-seeds, indigo, crude opium (sent to Patná for manufacture), saltpetre, sugar, blankets, brass utensils, etc. Among the imports are—salt, piece-goods, cloth, cotton, timber, bamboos, tobacco, lac, iron, spices, and fruits. The principal trade with other Districts is by the State Railway from Bánkipur to Gayá, which was opened for traffic in March 1879. Its total length is 57 miles; gross earnings for the year 1881–82, £54,819; working expenses, £34,241; net earnings, £20,578, or a return of 5·34 per cent. on the capital outlay.

Administration.—Owing to the loss of all office records at the time of the Mutiny, it is impossible to give the revenue of Gayá District before 1858–59. In that year the net revenue was £213,125; in 1870–71, the net revenue was £192,870; and in 1882–83, £255,464. The land revenue constitutes in Gayá, as elsewhere in Bengal, the most important item of the revenue; in 1870–71, it amounted to £138,032; and in 1882–83, to £143,688. Sub-division of estates has progressed very rapidly in Gayá; the number of estates in 1871 was 4411, and the number of registered proprietors, 20,453. The average payment, therefore, from each estate was £31, 5s. 10d., or from each individual proprietor, £6, 14s. 11d. By 1881–82, the number of estates had increased to 5614, and the registered proprietors to 59,172, the average payment from each estate being £26. Comparing these figures with the corresponding ones for 1789, found in an old register in the Patná office, it appears that in eighty years each estate had on an average split up into eight, and where there had in 1789 been one proprietor there were in 1881 over fifty. The land revenue in the former year was £104,170; the subsequent increase has not been great, as remissions have been granted to the Deo Rájás and others for military services. The machinery for the protection of person and property in the District has been steadily increasing in strength. There are now 12 magisterial and 5 civil courts, besides 3 honorary magistrates' courts. For police purposes, Gayá is divided into 14 *thánás*, with 24 outposts. The regular District police consisted at the end of 1882 of 3 superior and 99 subordinate officers, and 475 constables; the municipal police at the same time consisted of 318 officers and men; and the village watch numbered 13,126 men. Included among these last is a body of *digwárs* or road policemen, maintained by the landholders. These *digwárs* are peculiar to Gayá, and appear to have been first appointed early in the present century, in consequence of frequent accidents to travellers on roads and hill passes.

Highway robbery, once very prevalent in the District, is said to have almost entirely ceased since the introduction of the *digwárí* system. The total cost of maintaining the regular and municipal police in 1882 was £11,914, equal to a charge of 1¼d. per head of the population. Burglary and *dakáití* are still very common; the criminal classes are principally recruited from the Bábhans, Goálás, Dosádhs, and Doms. There were 4 jails in the District in 1882—the District jail at Gayá, and Sub-divisional lock-ups at Jahánábád, Aurangábád, and Nawádá. In that year the daily average number of prisoners in the Gayá jail was 298·48. Education (specially primary) has made rapid progress of late years. The number of pupils subject to the Education Department increased from 574 in 1856–57, to 8139 in 1873–74, and to 19,118 in 1882–83; the total number of schools in 1873–74 was 446, and in 1882–83, 1476, or 1 school to every 3·2 square miles of area, and 1 pupil to every 111 of the population. Of the boys of school-going age, 1 in every 6·5 is under instruction. For administrative purposes, the District is parcelled out into 4 Sub-divisions—the *sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division, with an area of 1839 square miles; Nawádá, 1020 square miles; Aurangábád, 1246 square miles; and Jahánábád Sub-division, 607 square miles.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Gayá is dry, and the District is regarded as very healthy. The average temperature is about 79·98° F.; maximum in May 1882, 111·5°, minimum 68·1°; maximum in July 95·2°, minimum 73·0°; maximum in December 81·9°, minimum 47·2°. Average annual rainfall at the town of Gayá, 39·8 inches. The wettest month is July, and in that month the average rainfall is 11·37 inches. Among the diseases of the District are cholera, leprosy, small-pox, neuralgia, headache, and the 'Gayá sore.' Cholera breaks out every now and then in some part of the District. Small-pox is endemic, owing to the objection of the people to vaccination. Neuralgic headache occurs in a very intense form; it often returns periodically, and in some cases defies treatment. Total number of registered deaths in 1882–83, 1416, or 19·49 per thousand of the population. [For further information regarding Gayá, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. (Trübner, 1877); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the *Administration and Departmental Reports of Bengal*, from 1880 to 1883.]

Gayá.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Gayá District, lying between 24° 17′ and 25° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 20′ 30″ and 85° 26′ 45″ E. long. Area, 1839 square miles, with 3719 villages or towns, and 137,370 houses. Population (1881) 805,364, namely, 395,836 males and 409,528 females. Classified according to religion, there are 706,127 Hindus, 99,161 Muhammadans, and 76 Christians. Average density of population, 438 persons per square

mile; villages, 2·02 per square mile; houses, 78·9 per square mile; persons per village, 217; per house, 5·8. The Sub-division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Gayá, Atrí, Tikári, Sherghátí, and Bárachatí. In 1882, it contained 9 magisterial and 4 revenue courts; with a regular police force of 277 officers and men, besides 6590 village watchmen.

Gayá.—Chief town and (with Sáhibganj) the administrative head-

chárá, and 1 *muáfí* or revenue-free.

Ghátampur.—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Ghátampur *tahsíl*, situated on the Hamírpur road, 26 miles west of Cawnpur city. Population (1881) 4916. The town was formerly a stronghold of the Bais clan, who expelled the Ahírs about five centuries ago, and gave the town the name of their leader Ghátam Deo. The principal building is a picturesque Gosain temple, situated in a mango grove south of the town. The public buildings

jail, police lines, hospital, circuit bungalow, and church. There is also a public library, billiard-room, swimming-bath, and racecourse. Gayá with Sáhibganj forms one municipality. The population of the united towns in 1881 amounted to 76,415, namely, 38,493 males and 37,992 females. Hindus numbered 60,181; Muhammadans, 16,161; and Christians and 'others,' 75. Municipal income (1882–83), £7253, of which £3807 was derived from taxation, mainly from houses and lands; expenditure, £6502; average incidence of taxation, 11⅞d. per head of

Ghagra.—River of Oudh.—*See* GOGRA.

Gháibi Dero (or *Dero Kot*). — *Jágír* or revenue-free town in Lárkhána Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lies on the Pauháro-Kambar road, 32 miles north-north-west of Lárkhána. Latitude 27° 36′ N., longitude 67° 41′ E. Population under a thousand; the Muhammadans are mainly Chándias. It is the principal town in the *jágír* of Gháibi Khán Chándia, the chief of the Gháibi Khán and Chándia tribes, long established in CHANDKO.

Ghamar.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* GAHMAR.

Ghán.—River of Berár, rising in the table-land north of the Penganga valley, Buldána District, Berár, in latitude 20° 26′ 30″ N., longitude 76° 23′ 30″ E. The stream, which dries up in the hot weather, flows in a northerly direction past Pimpalgáon and Nándwa, and joins the Púrna in latitude 20° 55′ N., and longitude 76° 33′ E. Commonly known as the Dnyan Gangá.

... constantly overran the *pargana*, and many villages remain desolate to this day.

Gháts (meaning etymologically 'a pass through a mountain,' or 'landing-stairs from a river;' in this case the 'passes' or 'landing-stairs' from the coast to the inner plateau).—Two ranges of mountains, forming the eastern and the western walls which support

the triangular table-land of Southern India. The Eastern and the Western Gháts pass through many Districts, and their sections are treated in detail in the articles on the Administrative divisions in which they are situated. The present notice of them must therefore be a very general one. THE EASTERN GHATS run in fragmentary spurs and ranges down the Madras side of India, receding inland, and leaving broad tracts between their base and the coast. THE WESTERN GHATS form the great sea-wall for the Bombay Presidency, with only a narrow strip between them and the shore. At one part they rise in magnificent precipices and headlands out of the ocean, and truly look like colossal 'landing-stairs' from the sea. The Eastern and the Western Gháts meet at an angle near Cape Comorin, and so complete the three sides of the interior table-land. The inner plateau itself lies far below the snow-line, and its ordinary elevation seldom exceeds from 2000 to 3000 feet. Its best known hills are the NILGIRIS (Blue Mountains), which contain the summer capital of Madras, UTAKAMAND (Ootacamund), 7000 feet above the sea. The highest point is DODABETTA PEAK, 8760 feet, at the southern extremity of Mysore. This wide region of highlands sends its waters chiefly to the eastern coast. The drainage from the north edge of the three-sided table-land falls into the Ganges. The Narbadá (Nerbudda) runs along the southern base of the Vindhyas which form that edge, and carries their drainage due west into the Gulf of Cambay. The Tápti flows almost parallel to the Narbadá, a little to the southward, and bears to the same gulf the waters from the Sátpura Hills. But from this point, proceeding southwards, the Western Gháts rise into a high unbroken barrier between the Bombay coast and the waters of the inner table-land. The drainage has therefore to make its way right across India to the eastwards, now twisting round hill ranges, now rushing down the valleys between them, until the rain which the Bombay sea-breeze drops upon the Western Gháts, finally falls into the Bay of Bengal. In this way the three great rivers of the Madras Presidency—namely, the GODAVARI, KISTNA, and KAVERI (Cauvery)—rise in the mountains overhanging the Bombay coast, and traverse the whole breadth of the central table-land before they reach the ocean on the eastern shores of India.

The entire geography of the two coasts of the Indian Peninsula is determined by the characteristics of these two mountain ranges. On the east, the country is comparatively open, and everywhere accessible to the spread of civilisation. It is here that all the great kingdoms of Southern India have fixed their capitals. Along the west, only a narrow strip of lowland intervenes between the barrier range and the seaboard. The inhabitants are cut off from communication with the interior, and have been left to develop a civilisation of their own. Again, the east coast is a comparatively dry region. Except in the deltas of the great

rivers, the crops are dependent upon a local rainfall which rarely exceeds 40 inches in the year. The soil is poor, the general elevation high, and the mountains are not profusely covered with forest. In this region the chief aim of the Forest Department is to preserve a sufficient supply of trees for fuel.

On the west, all these physical conditions are reversed. The rivers are mere hill-torrents, but the south-west monsoon brings an unfailing rainfall in such abundance as to clothe even the hill-slopes with a most luxuriant vegetation. The average fall all along the coast from Khándesh to Malabár reaches 100 inches, and in many exceptional spots high up among the mountains more than 200 inches of rain are registered in every year. What the western coast loses in regular cultivation it gains in the natural wealth of its primeval forests, which display the most magnificent scenery in all India. The mountains of Kánara, Malabár, Mysore, and Coorg furnish the Forest Department with the richest supplies. Along the highest ridges, on both slopes, grow the trees constituting what is technically known as 'the evergreen forest.' Chief among these is the *pún* (Calophyllum angustifolium), which often attains the height of 100 feet without branch or bend. No other tree in the world is better suited in every respect for supplying ships' spars and masts. Other timber-trees in this region are the jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), iron-wood (Mesua ferrea), Indian mahogany (Cedrela toona), ebony (Diospyros ebenaster), and *champak* (Michelia champaca). Interspersed among the tall trees grow an infinite variety of shrubs and creepers, among which latter pepper and cardamoms may be noticed for their commercial value. Farther east, sloping towards the plateau of Mysore, but still within the influence of the south-west monsoon, comes the region of 'deciduous forests,' in which the characteristic trees are blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), teak (Tectona grandis), sandal-wood (Santalum album), and bamboo.

In both these forest tracts European enterprise has recently introduced the successful cultivation of coffee. In wild beauty, nothing can surpass the luxuriance of a Coorg forest, as viewed from the summit of one of the peaks of the Western Gháts. A waving sea of green, broken into terraces of varying elevation, extends beneath on every side. North and south run parallel ranges of peaks, wooded almost to the summit; while to the west, many thousand feet below, the view is bounded by the blue line of the Arabian Ocean. Wild animals of all kinds swarm in the jungle, and haunt the grassy glades. Of these the most characteristic are the elephant, the tiger, the still more furious bison, the *sámbhar* deer, and the jungle sheep or ibex.

The following details must here suffice with regard to the Gháts the reader being referred for further information to the separate articles on the Districts in which they are situated :—

THE EASTERN GHATS commence in Balasor District, Orissa, and form a continuation of the hills which close the south-western side of the Gangetic valley. They pass southwards through the Districts of Cuttack and Purí (in Orissa), enter the Madras Presidency in Ganjám District, and sweep southwards through the Districts of Vizagapatam, Godávari, Nellore, Chengalpat, South Arcot, Trichinopoli, and Tinnevelli. They run at a distance of from 50 to 150 miles from the coast, except in Ganjám and Vizagapatam, where in places they almost abut on the Bay of Bengal. Average elevation, about 1500 feet. Geological formation, granite, gneiss, and mica slate, with clay slate, hornblende, and primitive limestone overlying. 'The surface of the country,' says Thornton, 'appears to consist of the debris of granitic rocks as far north as the Pennár (Ponnaiyár), in approaching which, the laterite or iron clay formation expands over a large surface. From the Kistna northwards, the granite is often penetrated by injected veins of trap and dikes of greenstone. Passing on to Vizagapatam and Ganjám, syenite and gneiss predominate, occasionally covered by laterite.'

THE WESTERN GHATS start from the north of the valley of the Tápti, and run southwards through Khándesh, Násik, Thána, Satára, Ratnágiri, Kánara, and Malabár, and the Native States of Cochin and Travancore. Length of range from the Tápti to the Pálghát gap, 800 miles; south of this pass they run for about 200 miles farther, to Cape Comorin. The coast-line from the sea to their base is generally flat and low, but the hills rise abruptly on the western side to an average height of 3000 feet. On the eastern side, the slope is more gradual. Highest peaks in the northern section—MAHABALESHWAR, 4700 feet; Purandhar, 4472; and Sinhgarh, 4162. South of Mahábaleshwar, the elevation diminishes to about 1000 feet above sea-level. Farther south the elevation again increases, and attains its maximum towards Coorg, where the highest peaks vary from 5500 to 7000 feet; and where the main range joins the Nílgiris. South of the Pálghát gap, many peaks rise to the same elevation. 'Geologically,' says Thornton, 'it may be observed generally, that the great core of the Western Gháts is of primary formation, enclosed by alternating strata of more recent origin. These strata, however, have been broken up by prodigious outbursts of volcanic rocks; and from Mahábaleshwar to the Tápti, the overlying rock of the Western Gháts is stated to be exclusively of the trap formation. . . . In consequence of the boldness of the declivities and the precipitous character of the faces of the trap rocks, the summits in many parts of the range are nearly inaccessible. The natural strength of these portions has in many instances been increased by art; and the hill forts in all ages of Indian history have been regarded as the bulwarks of the Deccan. The trap formation terminates southward on

the sea-coast in about lat. 18 N., and is succeeded by laterite. This last-mentioned formation extends southwards as the overlying rock, almost without interruption, to Cape Comorin, covering the base of the mountains and the narrow strip of land that separates them from the sea.'

Gházíábád.—South-western *tahsíl* of Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Dásna, Jalálábád, and Loni, lying along the bank of the river Jumna; traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi, and the East Indian Railways; intersected by the Hindan river, and irrigated by the Ganges and Eastern Jumna Canals. Area, 494 square miles, of which 353 are cultivated. Population (1881) 244,815, namely, males 131,400, and females 113,415. Hindus numbered 190,670; Muhammadans, 53,628; Jains, 256; and 'others,' 261. Land revenue, £39,532; total Government revenue, £43,089; rental paid by cultivators, £78,786; incidence of Government revenue per assessed acre, 2s. 6d. The *tahsíl* or Sub-division contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 7 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 94 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 597.

Gházíábád.—Town and municipality in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Gházíábád *tahsíl.* Lat. 28° 39′ 55″ N., long. 77° 28′ 10″ E.; distant from Meerut 28 miles south-west. Population (1881) 12,059, namely, Hindus, 8293; Musalmáns, 3592; Jains, 37; Christians, 130; and 'others,' 7. Area of town site, 102 acres. Has risen greatly in importance of late years, owing to the junction of the East Indian Railway with the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line at this point. The branch to Delhi also diverges from Gházíábád junction. Founded in 1740 by the Wazír Ghází-ud-dín, brother of Salábat Jang, ruler of the Deccan, from whom it derived its original name of Ghází-ud-dín-nagar, shortened to the present form on the opening of the railway. In May 1857, a small British force from Meerut here encountered and defeated the Delhi rebels, who had marched to attack them. Several *saráis*, *tahsílí*, school-house, municipal hall, police station, 6 mosques, several Hindu temples (the handsomest known as Mandir Dudheswarnáth). Numerous barracks, bungalows, and houses for native employés have sprung up in the neighbourhood of the railway station. The town has a rapidly increasing trade, and is now an important grain mart. Weekly market for hides and leather manufactures. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £1057; from taxes, £763, or 1s. 3⅛d. per head of population.

Gházípur.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 18′ 29″ and 26° 56′ N. lat., and between 83° 21′ 26″ and 84° 0′ 7″ E. long. Gházípur is a District in the Benares Division. It is bounded on the north by Azamgarh; on the west by Benares and Jaunpur; on the south by Sháhábád;

and on the east by Ballia. Area, 1473 square miles; population (1881) 1,014,099 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at GHAZIPUR town.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gházípur forms part of the great alluvial plain of the Ganges, stretching in equal portions on either side of the river. The northern part lies between the Gúmti and the Sarju, whose confluences with the main stream mark its western and eastern limits respectively. The southern tract is a much smaller strip of country, enclosed between the Karamnása and the great river itself. No hill or natural eminence is to be found within the District on either side; but both north and south of the Ganges the country may be divided into an upland and a low-lying tract. The higher land consists of the ancient alluvial bed, deposited at some very early period by the vast streams which carried down toward the sea the detritus of the Himálayan range. Through this elevated plateau, the modern rivers at a later date have cut for themselves broad channels, flooded at certain periods of the year, but forming the low-lying tilth in the harvest season. The process of denudation still goes on with every inundation, and the upland slopes are gradually diminishing in extent under the erosive action of the torrents. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Sarju, Gúmti, and Mangai. The first three are permanent streams, which flow during the dry season in narrow channels, cut through their own alluvial deposits. A few lakes are scattered over the District, formed where a river has deserted its former channel, and a bank of silt has dammed up the abandoned bed. The soil in many portions of the upland shows a tendency to develop the noxious saline efflorescence known as *reh*, the frequency of which is increased by the obstruction to drainage arising from the cultivation of rice. With this exception, however, the greater part of Gházípur is fertile and fully cultivated. Game is comparatively scarce, owing to the general prevalence of tillage; and deer, which prove so destructive to the standing crops in neighbouring Districts, are here almost unknown.

History.—Tradition refers the foundation of the city of Gházípur to a mythical hero, Rájá Gádh, who is said to have called his stronghold Gádhipur. The name, however, as will be presently proved, is of Musalmán origin, and, in fact, the town was not really founded until the 14th century A.D. Nevertheless, the District can boast a long history of its own, stretching far back into the earliest days of Aryan colonization. Carved monoliths bear witness to a very ancient Hindu civilisation; and one in particular, at Bhitri, contains an inscription of Samudra Gupta, who probably reigned over the surrounding country as far as Kanauj about the end of the 4th century A.D. Indeed, the monuments found in Gházípur have been of inestimable value in

enabling us to unravel the intricate history of the Ganges valley before the advent of the Musalmáns. The result of late investigations, as applied to these remains, may thus be briefly summarized. At the time of Sákya Muni (Buddha), 550 B.C., the country from Sayyidpur to Baxar was already the seat of a civilised Aryan nationality, whose metropolis was situated near the former town, where numerous ruins and architectural remains of the earliest age are still found. The country embraced the religion of the new teacher, and formed a portion of the Buddhist Empire under Asoka, who reigned about 250 B.C. Asoka erected here one of his well-known pillars, and at least two *stupas*. From the 4th to the 7th century of our era, Gházípur was included in the territories of the Gupta dynasty of Magadha, in whose columns and coins the District is unusually rich. Hwen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim, about 630 A.D., found this tract inhabited by a mixed population of Buddhists and Hindus. He visited a monastery built by Asoka, and mentions many other buildings, whose sites have been identified with a high degree of probability. After the extirpation of Buddhism by Bráhmanism in Northern India, the aborigines appear to have recovered these regions from their Aryan lords, who were perhaps weakened by internecine religious strife.

In the interval between the Gupta monarchy and the Muhammadan conquest, an age of darkness supervenes, during which Gházípur was apparently in the hands of Bhar chieftains. The ancient Aryan civilisation would seem to have been utterly trampled out, as no great monuments or architectural remains mark this intermediate period. But just before the Musalmán inroads, the Bráhmans and Rájputs from the north and west, driven from their own homes by the advancing wave of Islám, moved eastward to occupy the neglected tracts which had fallen for awhile into the hands of the indigenous races. The descendants of this second Aryan colony form the modern landowning class of the District; but they have no traditions with respect to their predecessors, and attribute the ancient monuments of their fellow-tribesmen to the Bhar Rájás, whom their fathers found in possession of the soil. The Rájput settlers, however, did not long enjoy their independence in the new home to which they had migrated. The aggressive Muhammadan power followed eastward close upon their heels. In 1193, Behar and the middle Ganges valley were conquered by Kutab-ud-dín, the general of Muhammad Ghori, first Musalmán Emperor of Delhi. He had defeated and slain the Hindu champion, Jai Chánd, Rahtor Rájá of Benares and Kanauj, in the Jumna ravines of Etáwah; and the whole country as far as Bengal lay at the feet of the conqueror. During the succeeding century we hear little of the present District; but about the year 1330, the city of Gházípur was founded (according to a probable tradition) by a Sayyid chief named Masáúd, who slew the

local Hindu Rájá in battle. Sultán Muhammad Tughlak thereupon granted him the estates of his conquered enemy, with the title of *Ghází*, or 'Champion of the Faith,' which gave the name to the newly-founded city. From 1394 to 1476, Gházípur was incorporated in the dominions of the Sharki dynasty of JAUNPUR, who maintained their independence for nearly a century as rival to the Lodhi rulers of Delhi. After their fall, it was reunited to the dominions of the Western Sultáns, and was conquered, like the surrounding country, by the Mughal Emperor Bábar in 1526. In 1539, however, the southern border of the District was the scene of a decisive engagement between the Afghán Prince Sher Sháh and Humáyún, the son of Bábar, at Baxar, just within the Sháhábád border, in which the latter was utterly defeated and driven out of the country.

Sher Sháh's victory settled the fate of Gházípur for the next twenty years. It remained in the undisturbed possession of the Afgháns, not only through the reigns of the three intrusive emperors belonging to the dynasty of Súr, but throughout the restored supremacy of Humáyún. It was not till the third year of Akbar that Gházípur was recovered for the Mughal throne by Khán Zamán, Governor of Jaunpur, from whom the town of Zamániá derives its name. After his rebellion and death in 1566, the District was thoroughly united to the Delhi Empire, and organized under the *subah* of Allahábád. During the palmy days of Akbar's successors, the annals of Gházípur are purely formal and administrative, until the rise of the Nawáb Wazírs of Oudh at the beginning of the last century. In 1722, Saádat Khán made himself practically independent as Viceroy of Oudh. About 1748, he appointed Shaikh Abdullá, a native of the District who had fled from the service of the Governor of Patná, to the command of Gházípur. Abdullá has left his mark in the city by his splendid buildings, the chief of which, now in ruins, is known as the Palace of the Forty Pillars. He also constructed a garden, the Nawáb's Bágh, near which he was buried under a handsome mausoleum. His son Fazl Alí succeeded him, but, after various vicissitudes, was expelled by Rájá Balwant Singh of Benares. Balwant Singh died in 1770, but the Nawáb Wazír permitted his illegitimate son, Chait Singh, to inherit his title and principality. In 1775, the suzerainty of the Benares Province was ceded to the British by the Wazír Asaf-ul-daulá. The new Government continued Cháit Singh in his fief until the year 1781, when he was deposed by Warren Hastings. From this final introduction of the British rule till the Mutiny, Gházípur enjoyed undisturbed peace.

In 1805, Lord Cornwallis died here, and a monument, with a marble tomb adorned with a statue by Flaxman, was erected to his memory. In 1857, order was preserved till the mutiny at Azamgarh became known, on 3rd June. The fugitives from Azamgarh arrived on that

day, and local outbreaks took place. The 65th Native Infantry, however, remained staunch, and 100 European troops on their way to Benares were detained, so that order was tolerably re-established by the 16th June. No further disturbance occurred till the news of the Dinapur mutiny arrived on the 27th of July. The 65th then stated their intention of joining Kuár Singh's force; but after the rebel defeat at Arrah, they were quietly disarmed, and some European troops were stationed at Gházípur. No difficulties arose till the siege of Azamgarh was raised in April, when the rebels came flying down the Gogra and across the Ganges to Arrah. The disorderly element again rose, and by the end of June the eastern half of the District was utterly disorganised. In July 1858, a force was sent to Ballia which drove the rebels out of the Doáb, while another column cleared all the *parganás* north of the Ganges. The *parganás* south of the river remained in rebellion till the end of October, when troops were sent across which expelled the rebels and completely restored order.

Population.—Gházípur is one of the numerous Districts which, after suffering a loss of population about the middle of the present century, has partially recovered its lost ground of late years. In 1853 the total number of inhabitants was returned at 1,596,324. In 1865 it had sunk to 1,342,455, showing a decrease of 253,869 persons, or 16 per cent., in spite of an intermediate enlargement of its area by 41 square miles. By 1872, however, although 55 square miles of territory had been transferred to other Districts, the population had risen again to a total of 1,345,570, which showed an increase of 3115 persons, or ·2 per cent., although, allowing for the present further decreased area, the population in 1872 was but 873,299. By 1881 the population had increased to 1,014,099, being 140,800, or 16·1 per cent., over the population in the same area in 1872. The statistics of density display these changes even more conspicuously and truthfully than a mere enumeration upon a constantly-shifting area. The Census of 1853 gave an average of 732 persons to the square mile; that of 1865 showed only 604 to the square mile; while that of 1872 disclosed a density of 621 to the square mile, and that of 1881, 688 to the square mile. The enumeration of 1881 was taken over an area of 1473 square miles, and it returned a total population of 1,014,099 persons, distributed among 2606 villages or towns, and inhabiting 166,789 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 688; villages per square mile, 1·7; houses per square mile, 113; persons per village, 389; persons per house, 6·0.

Classified according to sex, there were—males, 507,117; females, 506,982; proportion of males, 50·0 per cent. As regards religion, Gházípur contains about the average proportion of Hindus and Muhammadans which is found throughout the North-Western Pro-

vinces. The Census showed 913,764 adherents of the Hindu faith, or 90·1 per cent., as against 99,678 Musalmáns, or 9·8 per cent. There were also 648 Christians, 8 Jews, and 1 Pársí. The higher Hindu castes were returned as follows:—Bráhman, 67,840; Rájput, 91,675; Káyasth, 15,421; and Baniyá, 4251. The lower castes are represented by the Ahír, cattle breeders, milkmen, and cultivators, 154,246, the most numerous caste in the District; Chamár, leather-workers, labourers, etc., 130,716; Kachhí, cultivators and gardeners, 77,262; Bhuinhár, landholders and cultivators, 47,181; Bhar, the early aboriginal rulers of the country, now cultivators and labourers, 43,846; Kahár, cultivators, palanquin-bearers, and domestic servants, 35,989; Telí, oil-makers, 22,478; Lohár, blacksmiths, 21,419; Loniá, salt-workers by hereditary occupation, but now spadesmen and field labourers, 18,633; Kumbhar, potters, 14,247; Mallah, boatmen, 14,029; Kalwár, distillers, 13,239; Kúrmí, landholders and cultivators, 10,023; Gadariá, shepherds, 8554; Nái, barbers, 8536; Sonár, goldsmiths, 7813; Dhobí, washermen, 7079; and Tambulí, betel-leaf sellers, 6269. Amongst the Musalmáns, the Sunnís numbered 96,787; and the Shiás, 2891.

The *pancháyats*, or caste guilds, have here as elsewhere very much the practical effect of trades-unions; and they also regulate matters of social arrangement, petty debt, occupancy of land, and domestic questions generally. The District is permanently assessed, and both landowners and cultivators are richer and more independent than in the country farther west. In the poorer parts, the peasantry are generally in debt; but in the more fertile tracts, where they have mostly rights of occupancy, they are well-to-do, and are (perhaps in consequence) the most litigious community in the North-Western Provinces. There are seven towns in the District with a population (1881) exceeding 5000 souls—namely, GHAZIPUR, 32,885; GAHMAR, 10,443; RIOTIPUR, 10,297; SHERPUR, 9030; NARHI, 5415; ZAMANIA, 5116; and BAHADURGANJ, 5007. These give a total urban population of 78,193 souls, leaving the remainder, 935,906, as forming the village and rural population. Of the 2606 towns and villages in the District in 1881, 1300 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 726 from two to five hundred, 385 from five hundred to a thousand, 145 from one to two thousand, 28 from two to three thousand, 11 from three to five thousand, 8 from five to ten thousand (including scattered hamlets attached to four villages), 2 from ten to fifteen thousand, and 1 over thirty thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report classified the male population into the following six groups:—(1) Professional, including civil and military, all Government employés, and the learned professions, 6865; (2) domestic servants, board and lodging-house keepers, 1859; (3) commercial, including

merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 9585; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 236,517; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 54,230; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 14,026 labourers and 184,035 male children or persons of unspecified occupation), 193,061.

Agriculture.—The greater portion of the cultivable soil in Gházípur is already fully tilled, there being a total of 1006 square miles under cultivation, with an available margin of only 132 square miles. The black earth called *karáil*, resembling the *már* of Bundelkhand, is common in the lowlands and in the plateau south of the Ganges. It produces a good spring crop without irrigation, but its character is much improved if sand is spread over the surface; otherwise it is liable to dry up into deeply-fissured masses of hardened clay. In all the Gangetic lowland, the upper layer of a well-raised tract always consists of alluvial mould; but the sub-soil is sandy. The rivers which have had the longest course from the hills, deposit mud; the others leave behind them beds of sand; but the Ganges forms alternate layers of each. Hence a flood from the Sarju is injurious to the fields, while an inundation of the Ganges benefits the crops. The harvests are those common to the whole north-western plain. The *kharíf* crops are sown after the first rains in June, and reaped in October or November. The early rice, however, is sometimes harvested as soon as the end of August, while cotton is not ready for picking till February. The other autumn staples are the millets *bájra* and *joár*, and *moth*. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests; and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. As a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a plot of early rice is reaped in August or September, and a second crop of some kind is sown in its place for the spring harvest. If rain is delayed beyond the 20th June, this keeps back the sowing and endangers the yield of the early autumn crops.

At the Land Settlement of Gházípur District, made in 1789, and subsequently declared permanent, fraternities or brotherhoods belonging to various Hindu and Muhammadan tribes were recognised by Government, in the great majority of cases, as the owners of the soil. The settlements were concluded with a few head-men on each estate, who were the representatives of the whole community. In some cases, by accident rather than by design, the head-man of a proprietary community was treated as sole owner. In no instance did Government admit the existence of any divided ownership, or of superior and inferior proprietary rights. No *talúkdárs* were therefore recognised, though there were immense *táluks*, or single estates formed of many villages, held by brotherhoods of shareholders. A detailed record of the rights

of ownership of the various shareholders was not attempted till 1840. Meanwhile, estates were sold for arrears of revenue; and, till after the Land Act of 1859, the purchasers were constantly at law with the old landowners, who rented and cultivated the fields they formerly possessed. The adult male agriculturists in the District in 1881 numbered 235,971, cultivating an average of 2·73 acres each. The total agricultural population dependent on the soil, however, was 726,369, or 71·62 per cent. of the District population. Of the 1473 square miles of area, 1470 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of this, 1006 square miles are under cultivation, 131½ square miles are available for cultivation, and 332½ square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £129,963, or an average of 4s. 0⅜d. per cultivated acre. Total rental actually paid by cultivators, £223,254, or an average of 6s. 11d. per acre. Wages ordinarily rule as follows:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women are paid about one-fifth less than men, while boys and girls get from one-half to one-third the wages of adults. Agricultural hands are most frequently paid in grain. In villages, payments for labour are made daily. The following were the average prices-current of food-grains in 1883:—Wheat, 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. per cwt.; best rice, 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.; common rice, 16¾ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 9d. per cwt.; *joár*, 32¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5½d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 27¾ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 0½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District is not specially subject to flood, drought, or blight, and it has suffered from no great famine during the present century. It possesses ample means of external communication in the rivers Ganges and Gumti, the East Indian Railway, and the branch railway from Dildárnagar to the bank of the Ganges opposite Gházípur town. In 1783, severe scarcity occurred from the failure of the rains in the previous year, but there were no deaths from famine as far as known. In 1803, the rice crop was destroyed and the spring harvest endangered. In 1837–38, there was again a scarcity, but no actual famine occurred. There were also partial droughts in 1859–60, 1864–65, and 1865–66, besides floods in 1871–72. Another scarcity occurred in 1868–69, when only 21 inches of rain fell in twelve months. The greater part of the autumn and about half the spring crops were lost, and severe distress resulted. Relief operations were set on foot, and continued from June to September 1869, but no actual deaths from famine occurred. The last year of scarcity was 1878, when prices rose very high owing to the scanty rainfall of 1877, and Government relief works were necessary from June to August 1878.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The chief imports into the District are English piece-goods and yarn, cotton, salt, spices, and grain. The principal exports are country cloth, sugar, fuller's earth, oil-seeds, and hides. The head-quarters of the Government Opium Department for the North-Western Provinces are at Gházípur. The poppy has been cultivated in India since the 16th century; and when the English first acquired the Benares Province, they farmed the monopoly to contractors. In 1797, an opium agent was appointed for Benares, but natives still managed the manufacture, and were paid by commission. In 1852, Lord Dalhousie introduced the present system. There are 10 deputies under the agent, and each of these has one or two European assistants. The 10 divisions are again sub-divided into 39 offices, each supervised by a native overseer. Licences are granted and advances made to the cultivators, who in return engage to place a certain amount of land under opium. After the fields are sown, they are measured carefully, and estimates made of the quantity of opium which each cultivator ought to produce. In March and April the opium is collected and brought to the factory, where it is weighed, and its consistence is tested, before the cultivator is paid for it. The amount disbursed in working expenses at the Gházípur factory is about £10,000 per annum. The opium is classified according to its consistence, and is then made up into special balls, which are packed in boxes and despatched to Calcutta for sale by auction. Carbonate of soda is manufactured from the *reh* or saline efflorescence of the barren *úsar* plains, and exported to Calcutta. Saltpetre is also largely prepared from the same source. The *parganás* south of the Ganges are traversed by the East Indian Railway for a length of 24 miles; there are three stations within the District—at Zamániá, Dildárnagar, and Gahmar. Three stations in Sháhábád District are also situated within easy distances from portions of Gházípur. A branch State line has been constructed from Dildárnagar to Tari-ghát opposite Gházípur town, and is worked by the East Indian Railway. Total length of railways, 35 miles. Much of the heavy commerce of the District is still conveyed by the Ganges. Good roads, to the length of 568 miles, of which 112 miles are metalled, connect all the principal centres with one another and with the adjacent towns. A bathing fair is held on the full moon of Kártik, in October, at Chochakpur, which attracts some 10,000 visitors

Administration.—The ordinary District staff consists of a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, and 3 Deputy Magistrates. Gházípur is the seat of a Civil and Sessions Judge, who is also Judge of Balliá. The whole amount of revenue raised in the District, for imperial, municipal, or local purposes, amounted in 1882–83 to £140,000, being at the rate of 2s. 9d. per head of the population. In the same year, the

total strength of the regular police force was 392 officers and men, besides a municipal or town police of 161 men; the cost of their maintenance was returned at £5799, of which £4793 was paid from Provincial sources, and £1006 from municipal funds. These figures show 1 policeman to every 2·7 square miles of the area, and to every 1834 of the population. The District jail is at Gházípur town. In 1882 it contained a daily average of 459 prisoners, of whom 34 were females. The District possesses 17 imperial and 1 local post-office; and telegraph offices are connected with each of the stations on the East Indian Railway. Education was carried on in 1882–83 in 150 Government-inspected schools, with a total roll of 5524 scholars, being an average of 1 school to every 9·8 square miles, and 5 scholars per thousand of the population. This is exclusive of unaided schools, for which no returns are available. The Census Report in 1881 returned 5870 boys and 200 girls as under instruction, besides 24,489 males and 456 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. For fiscal purposes, Gházípur is sub-divided into 4 *tahsíls* and 13 *parganás*. The District contains only one municipality, that of Gházípur town.

Sanitary Aspects.—Gházípur is one of the hottest and dampest Districts in the North-Western Provinces. In 1869, the mean annual temperature was 80° F.; the lowest monthly mean was 61° in January, and the highest 98° in May. The average annual rainfall for the thirty years ending 1881 was 37·99 inches; during this period, the maximum was 50·5 inches in 1861, and the minimum was 21·5 inches in 1868. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 was 31,877, or 32·49 per thousand of the population. There are 3 dispensaries in the District, at Gházípur, Sayyidpur, and Pírnagar. During the year 1882 they afforded relief to 24,393 persons, of whom 689 were in-door and 23,704 out-door patients.

Gházípur.—Central *tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Ganges. Area, 440 square miles, of which 264 square miles are cultivated, 73 square miles cultivable, and 103 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 332,408, namely, males 168,751, and females 163,657. Hindus numbered 299,770; Muhammadans, 32,244; and 'others,' 394; land revenue, £32,118; total Government revenue, £35,604; rental paid by cultivators, £71,870; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 3¾d. per acre. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 4 civil and 8 criminal courts, with 7 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 95 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 745.

Gházípur.—City, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the low alluvial northern bank of the Ganges, 44 miles north-east of Benares.

Lat. 25° 35′ 0″ N., long. 83° 38′ 7″ E. Population (1881) 32,885, namely, males 15,961, and females 16,924. Hindus numbered 21,824; Muhammadans, 11,047; and Christians, 14. Founded, according to Hindu tradition, by Rájá Gádh, an eponymous hero, from whom it took the name of Gádhipur: according to Muhammadan history, by the Sayyid chief Masáúd, about the year 1330, from whose title of Málik-us-Saádat Ghází the city really derives its name. For later history and Mutiny narrative, see GHAZIPUR DISTRICT. The city stretches along the bank of the Ganges for nearly two miles, with a breadth from north to south of about three-quarters of a mile. Palace of the Forty Pillars, built by Shaikh Abdullá, governor under the Oudh viceroys, now lies in ruins. Tombs of Masáúd, Abdullá, and Fazl Alí also adorn the city. Monument to Lord Cornwallis, who died here in 1805, consisting of a domed quasi-Grecian building, with a marble statue by Flaxman. Trade in sugar, tobacco, coarse long-cloth, and rose-water. Head-quarters of the Government Opium Department, where all the opium from the North-Western Provinces is collected and manufactured under a monopoly. Two weekly vernacular newspapers are published in the town. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £2962; from taxes, £2439, or 1s. 1½d. per head of population (43,232) within municipal limits.

Gházípur.—Central southern *tashíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Jumna, and consisting of the *parganás* of Ayah Sah, Gházípur, and Mutaur. Area, 282 square miles, of which 158 are cultivated, and 61 still available for cultivation; land revenue, £19,623; total Government revenue, £23,069; rental paid by cultivators, £32,439; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 7⅛d.

Gházípur Khás. — Town in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Gházípur *tahsíl*, situated on the Fatehpur and Libra road about 9 miles from Fatehpur town, in lat. 25° 48′ 55″ N., and long. 80° 46′ 41″ E. Population (1881) 2134, chiefly Rájputs. Said to have been founded in 1691 by Araru Singh, the ancestor of the present Rájá of Asothar. The fort here was the chief stronghold of the family. Police station and post-office.

Ghází-ud-dín-nagar. — Town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* GHAZIABAD.

Ghazní.—Town and fortress in Afghánistán; situated on the left bank of the river of the same name, 85 miles south-west of Kábul, 233 miles north-east of Kandahár, 145 miles north-east of Kalat-i-Ghilzai, 264 miles west of Kohát by Kuram, 283 miles north-west of Derá Ismail Khán by the Gumal road, and 295 miles north-east of Quetta. Lat. 33° 34′ N., long 68° 19′ E. The town may be described as an irregular square, each side averaging 500 yards. Its circumference

was measured in 1880, and was found, excluding the citadel, to be 2175 yards. The citadel and town are thus described by Captain Larminie, a member of Sir D. Stewart's staff, who wrote in 1880 :— 'With a few slight exceptions, nothing whatever either in the shape of repairs or new buildings appears to have been done since the date of our last occupancy, nearly forty years ago; hence the whole has fallen into a state of ruin and decay. A ruined citadel, broken and useless parapets, cracked and tumble-down towers, crumbling curtain walls, and a silted-up ditch, are all that remain of the once famous stronghold of Ghazni.' The town is surrounded by a high wall, and flanked at irregular intervals by towers. The city itself is composed of dirty irregular streets of houses, several storeys high, and will not bear comparison with either Kábul or Kandahár. The houses are built of mud, and variously estimated at from 900 to 3500; the inhabitants are composed principally of Afgháns, about 200 families of Hazára labourers, and about 150 Hindu shopkeepers, bankers, and traders, the latter paying a small tax as infidels. With the exception of *poshtíns* (sheepskin coats) there are no manufactures. Ghazní is celebrated for its apricots, apples and melons, which go to Kábul in large quantities.

The climate of Ghazní, for several months of the year, is extremely cold, and snow lies on the ground from November to March. In summer it is not so hot as Kábul or Kandahár, but at that season there are constant dust-storms. Three miles to the north-east of Ghazní are the ruins of the old city, destroyed in the middle of the 12th century by the Prince of Ghor, who, however, spared the tomb of the renowned Mahmúd of Ghazní. The citadel is situated at the north angle of the town, and commands the city completely. Ghazní was captured by Sir John Keane's force during the first Afghán war, being carried by storm on the 23rd July 1839. At the time of the Afghán rising in 1841, the citadel was garrisoned by the 27th Bengal Native Infantry. The place was besieged by the Afgháns, and the garrison forced to retire to the citadel. The little force held out, after suffering great privations, from November 1841 till the 6th March 1842, when, their supply of water failing, they were forced to evacuate the fort, and afterwards to surrender to the Afghán chief. The officers were brutally treated, and the Sepoys either sold into slavery or murdered. In September 1842, General Nott recaptured Ghazní. The citadel was destroyed before the withdrawal of General Nott's army to India. During the Afghán War of 1879–80, Ghazní was twice visited by a British force, namely, in April 1880 by Sir Donald Stewart, when marching from Kandahár to Kábul, and in August of the same year by Sir Frederick Roberts, when returning from Kábul to Kandahár. On the former occasion an unimportant engagement

with the Afgháns took place at Arzu, 6 miles south-east of Ghazní. Ghazní lies beyond British India, and does not, therefore, come within the strict scope of this work. But its former importance as a great military centre on the north-western frontier deserves a passing word. It gave its name to the founder of the Musalmán Empire of India, and Mahmúd of Ghazní (997-1030) was only the forerunner of a long series of invaders who streamed eastwards over the passes from Afghánistán.

Gheriá.—Town and fort in Ratnágirí District, Bombay Presidency. —*See* VIJAIADRUG.

Gheriá.—Small town to the south of Sútí, Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 30′ 15″ N., long 88° 8′ 15″ E. Famous as the scene of two important battles—the first in 1740, when the Nawáb Alí Vardí Khán defeated Sarfaráz Khán, his rival for the government of Bengal; the second in 1763, when Mír Kásim, Nawáb of Bengal, after declaring war upon the East India Company, was finally defeated and the throne bestowed for the second time upon Mír Jafar.

Ghes.—Estate or *zamíndárí* attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, about 43 miles west of Sambalpur. Population (1881) 7030, residing in 25 villages, on an area of 30 square miles, of which three-fifths are cultivated, chiefly with rice. The principal village, Ghes, situated in lat. 21° 11′ 30″ N., long. 83° 20′ E., contains a population (1881) of 979. The *zamíndár's* family are Banjáras. The estate occupies a small tract in the south-west corner of the District, and is much overrun by scrub-jungle, and the soil is inferior. The population is mainly agricultural, composed of Banjáras, and aboriginal Gonds and Kandhs. A few Kalitá families hold the best villages. Staple products, rice and oil-seeds. Only 4 villages contain a population of between 500 and 1000, the remainder having less than 500. The estate is said to have been granted to an ancestor of the present family by the Sambalpur Rájá two centuries ago, free of rent, but subject to a light tribute. In 1857, the *zamíndár* joined in the rebellion of Surendra Sah, but was pardoned under the amnesty of 1858. He was afterwards, however, convicted of harbouring proclaimed rebels, and sentenced to seven years' imprisonment. He died in jail, and was succeeded by his son Ujal Singh, who still (1883) holds the estate.

Ghodbandar.—*See* GHORBANDAR.

Ghoghá.—Town in Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* GOGO.

Ghogháro.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 29′ N., long. 68° 4′ E. Population (under 2000) chiefly Muhammadans of the Mangan, Siál, and Wagan tribes. Ghogáro possesses a considerable rice trade, being situated in one of the finest rice districts in Sind.

Gholghát.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal. Famous as the site of a fortress built by the Portuguese, which gradually grew into the town and port of HUGLI. Traces of this fort are still visible in the bed of the river.

Gholwád.—Town in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 20° 5′ N., longitude 72° 46′ E. Population (1881) 1486. Station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The railway traffic returns show an increase in passengers from 5898 in 1873 to 9949 in 1880, and a fall in the amount of goods carried from 912 to 522 tons. Average exports for three years ending 1878-79, £1870; average imports, £202.

Ghorá.—Chief town of the State of Jobat, under the Bhíl Agency of Central India.—*See* JOBAT.

Ghorábári.—*Táluk* of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated between 24° 5′ and 24° 34′ N. latitude, and 67° 21′ 15″ and 68° 1′ E. longitude. Population (1881) 34,360, namely, 3417 Hindus, 30,202 Muhammadans, 697 Sikhs, and 44 'others;' area, 566 square miles, with 1 town and 97 villages; revenue, £8140. In 1882-83 the *táluk* contained 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 44 men. Area assessed to land revenue, 41,560 acres; under actual cultivation, 25,360 acres.

Ghorásar.—Petty State under the Máhi Kántha Agency in the Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 8400; gross revenue, £2854. Products—cotton and the ordinary cereals. For administrative purposes, the State is included in the Wátrak Kántha sub-division of the Máhi Kántha territory. Number of villages, 15; area under tillage, 22,500 acres. There are 2 schools, with 155 pupils. The present (1881) chief is Súraj Mal; he holds the title of Thákur, and is a Hindu of the Kolí caste. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture; there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. An annual tribute is payable of £48, 16s. to the British Government, and £350 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Transit dues are levied in the State. Chief town, Ghorásar, situated in latitude 23° 28′ N., longitude 73° 20′ E.

Ghorbandar (*Ghodbandar*).—Port in Salsette, Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 601. The customs' division called after Ghorbandar comprises 5 ports, namely, Rai Utan, Manori, Bándra, Vesáva, and Ghorbandar. The total trade of these 5 ports in 1881-82 was £210,777, of which £36,717 represents imports, and £174,060 exports, the last consisting of rice, stone, lime, sand, cocoa-nuts, salt, fish, and firewood. The imports are hardware, cloth, groceries, rice, oil, molasses, butter, tobacco, gunny-bags, hemp and timber. Ghorbandar lies on the left bank of Bassein creek, 10 miles north-west of Thánà, and has been supposed to be the Hippokura of

Ptolemy. Under the Portuguese, the place stood a siege by the Maráthá Sivaji, who appeared before it in 1672. In 1737 it was captured by the Maráthás, and the Portuguese garrison put to the sword. Fryer calls the town Grebondel. Rest-house on the shore

[illegible] is of smaller size than the others. The only other interesting feature in the building is an earthenware pipe leading to the sixth storey, and brought all the way from a tank 600 [illegible]

Gidu-jo-Tando.—Town in Haidarábád (Hyder[illegible]) Bombay Presidency. Latitude [illegible] Population [illegible]

from the landing-place on the Indus, where the products of Shikárpur, Adam-jo-Tando, etc. are received for re-exportation, Ghotána possesses a large transit trade in grain, cotton, seeds, and potash. The local

[illegible] of Haidarábád, in which [illegible] Large transit trade, chiefly in cotton and [illegible] A steam ferry connects Gidu-jo-Tando with the railway station of Kotri on the opposite bank of the Indus.

Gigásáran.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Population (1881) 632. Lies 24 miles south of Kunkawav station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal railway. Estimated revenue, £500. The tribute due is paid by Amreli in lieu of certain villages taken possession of by that State.

[illegible] 53,545 acres; area under actual cultivation, 48,424 acres. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 49 men.

Ghotki.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 28° 0′ 15″ N., longitude 69° 21′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 3240, the Muhammadans being chiefly of the Pathán, Malak, Sayyid, Mochi, and Lohár tribes, and the Hindus principally Baniyás. Founded about 1747. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £276; disbursements, £225; incidence of local taxation, 1s. 8d. per head. Situated on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Sessions court-house, head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkár*, post-office, travellers' bungalow. The mosque of Pír Músa Sháh, the founder of the city, 113 feet long by 65 feet broad, is the largest in Sind, and of great sanctity. Local trade chiefly in cereals, indigo, wool, and sugar-cane. The Lohárs (blacksmiths) of Ghotki are famed for their metal-work; wood carving and staining are also very creditably executed.

Ghugus.—Village in Chándá District, Central Provinces; 13 miles west of Chándá town. Lat. 19° 56′ 30″ N., long. 79° 9′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 748. The village contains three temple-caves, and near them some carved stones apparently meant to represent animals. Near Ghugus, about A.D. 1700, was fought the battle between the Gond king Rám Sháh and the rebel princes Bágbá, Agbá, and Rágbá. Agbá fell on the field, where his tomb may still be seen; and hard by is the 'Ghorá Ghát,' so called from Bágbá's fabled leap across the

Wardhá. On the bank of this river, between Ghugus and Chándur, a seam of coal, 33 feet thick, crops out on the surface, and is estimated to cover 3 square miles. An experimental shaft was sunk, but has now been abandoned.

town and port

of the river.

Gholwád.—Town in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 20° 5′ N., longitude 72° 46′ E. Population (1881) 1486. Station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The railway traffic

turns have been Muhammadans. The names of the Hindu Rás, who were also called Sháhreís, have been lost, with the exception of the last of their number, Srí Baddat; and tradition relates that he was killed by a Muhammadan adventurer, who married his daughter and founded a new dynasty called Trakhané. The present holder of the title of Rá is Alidád Khán, who belongs properly to the ruling family of Nagar, but was installed as representative of the Trakhané on account of his descent from that family through his mother.

The population of the Gilghit valley must at one time have been large, as traces of cultivated terraces high up on the mountain-sides to an elevation of 10,000 feet distinctly prove; and the period of greatest prosperity was probably under the Shin Rás. According to tradition, Srí Baddat's rule extended over Chitrál, Yassín, Tangir, Darel, Chilás, Gor, Astor, Hanza, Nagar, and Haramosh. A glance at the map will show that the Gilghit country is situated in the centre of the most mountainous region of the Himálayas. Nowhere else in the world, probably, is there to be found so great a number of deep valleys and lofty mountains in so small an area. Within a radius of 65 miles from Gilghit town, the survey maps show, amidst innumerable smaller peaks, eleven varying from 18,000 to 20,000 feet, seven from 20,000 to 22,000 feet, six from 22,000 to 24,000 feet, and eight from 24,000 to 26,000 feet, while half of the tract thus included still remains to be surveyed.

site of a deserted hill frontier town, and interesting as the seat of one of the oldest of the noble families of Behar. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of an ancient castle, the erection of which is often attributed to Sher Sháh, but it is probably of much earlier origin. The Gídhaur family, which now after twenty-two generations is still wealthy and influential, was founded about 1066 A.D. by Bír Vikram Singh, a Rájput of the Chandrabansí or Lunar sept. Puran Mall, the 10th Rájá, built the great temple of BAIDYANATH; and in the Sanskrit verse inscribed above the inner door of the sanctuary he is called *ure pati*, or 'king of men,' a title that bears witness to the position of the family centuries ago. Sir Jái Mangal, who has lately died, was created a Mahárájá in 1865, and a Knight Commander of the Star of India in 1866, in consequence of his loyal exertions on our behalf during the Santál Rebellion of 1855 and the Mutiny of 1857.

same size and pattern, namely, an arcaded verandah running round a small room, about 8 feet square, and communicating with the storey above by means of small steps. The room on the seventh storey has now no verandah, but there are indications of one having existed formerly. The topmost room is of smaller size than the others. The only other interesting feature in the building is an earthenware pipe leading to the sixth storey, and brought all the way from a tank 600 yards off, outside the walls of the fort, and carried under the wall to the back of the ladies' quarters, and thence over the roof to the Mahal. One of the most singular features about Gingi is the water-supply. There are two perennial springs of excellent water on the top of Rájágiri—one outside the gateway of the citadel, and the other on the very summit of the rock. At the foot of the ridge at the back of Rájágiri, and between it and Chandrayan Drúg, are two tanks, and on the western side of the bluff is a third reservoir constructed to catch the surface drainage. The principal objects of interest are—the great gun on the top of Rájágiri; the Rájá's bathing-stone, a large smooth slab of granite, 15 feet square and 4 or 5 inches thick, near the spot where the palace is said to have stood; and the prisoners' well. This latter is a very singular boulder, about 15 or 20 feet high, poised on a rock near the Chakrakulam and surmounted by a low circular brick wall. It has a natural hollow passing through it like a well, and the bottom, having been blocked up with masonry and the upper edges smoothed with a little masonry work plastered with *chunam*, a natural dry well was formed, into which prisoners are said to have been thrown and allowed to die of starvation. The top of the boulder can only be reached by means of a ladder, but the hollow has now been filled up with rubbish. The metal of which the gun is made has little or no rust. It has the figures 7560 stamped on the breech. A little to the south of Rájágiri is a fourth hill called Chakli Drúg. The summit is strongly fortified, but these fortifications are not connected with those of Gingi.

History.—As mentioned above, Gingi was a stronghold of the Vijayanagar power, which was at the height of its prosperity towards the close of the 15th century, and was finally overthrown by the allied Muhammadan kings of the Deccan in 1564, at Tálikot. It was not till 1638, however, that Bandullá Khán, the Bijápur general, captured the fort of Gingi, after joining his forces to those of Golconda, which were then beleaguering the place. The division of the Bijápur army that effected this was commanded by Sháhjí, father of Sivají the Great. In 1677, the fort fell to Sivají by stratagem, and remained in Maráthá hands for twenty-one years. In 1690, the armies of the Delhi Emperor, under Zulfikár Khán, were despatched against Gingi with a view to the final extirpation of the Maráthá power. The siege was prolonged for

eight years, but the fort fell in 1698, and afterwards became the head-quarters of the standing army in Arcot. In 1750, the French under M. Bussy captured it by a skilful and daringly-executed night-surprise, and held it with an efficient garrison for eleven years, defeating one attack by the English under Major Kineer in 1752. Captain Stephen Smith took the place after five weeks' siege in 1761. In 1780 it was surrendered to Haidar Alí, but subsequently it played no part of importance in the wars of Southern India. Gingi has long enjoyed the reputation of being one of the most unhealthy localities in the Karnátic. The French are said by Orme to have lost 1200 European soldiers during their eleven years' tenancy of it, and their garrison of Europeans rarely exceeded 100 men. There is no trace, however, of any burial-ground where these men were interred. The place is now deserted, but Government allows an annual grant for the preservation of the ruins.

Gingi.—River of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* ARIAKUPUM.

Gir (*Geer*).—Range of hills in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, extending over 40 miles in length, commencing from a point about 20 miles north-east of Diu island. Captain Grant of the Indian Navy was captured in 1813 by an outlaw named Háwáwála, who kept him a prisoner on these hills for two and a half months. The region consists of a succession of rugged ridges and isolated hills covered with forest.

Girar.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; 37 miles south-east of Wardhá town. Lat. 20° 40′ N., long. 79° 9′ 30″ E. The shrine of the Musalmán saint, Shaikh Khwája Faríd, crowns the summit of a neighbouring hill, and attracts a continual flow of devotees, both Hindus and Musalmáns. This holy man was born in Hindustán, and, after wandering for thirty years as a *fakír*, he settled on the Girar Hill about 1244. Two travelling traders once mocked the saint, on which he turned their stock of cocoa-nuts to stone; then moved by their supplications, he created a fresh stock from dry leaves. The traders were so struck by these wonders, that they attached themselves to the saint's service, and their two graves may yet be seen on the hill. The shrine absorbs the revenues of five villages, Girar itself, however, not being among the number. The town has a police outpost, a good village school, and a weekly market. Population (1881) 1548.

Girdábádi.—One of the peaks of the Eastern Gháts, in Chinna Kimedi *zamíndárí*, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 29′ 44″ N., long. 84° 25′ 18″ E.; 3399 feet above sea-level. A Great Trigonometrical Survey station.

Giridhi. — Sub-division of Hazáríbágh District, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Giridhi station is the terminus of a branch line from Madhu-

pur on the East Indian Railway. This branch is at present 23 miles in length, and opens up the important KARHARBARI (Karharbali) coal-field. A convenient route to Párasnáth is obtained by proceeding by railway to Giridhi, and thence 20 miles by palanquin or horseback to the foot of the sacred hill. Area of the Sub-division, 2446 square miles; number of villages, 3553; houses, 70,631. Total population (1881) 432,504, namely, males 216,027, and females 216,477. Hindus numbered 356,230; Muhammadans, 45,321; Christians, 172; Santáls, 28,043; Kols, 2649; other aboriginal tribes, 89. Average density of population, 177 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·45; houses per square mile, 29·96; persons per village, 121; persons per house, 6·12. The Sub-division comprises the five *thánás* or police circles of Pachamba, Gawán, Karagdiha, Kodarma, and Dumurhi. It contained in 1883, one civil and two criminal courts, a regular police force of 113 officers and men, and a rural police or village watch numbering 881.

Giriyák.—Village on the Panchána river, Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 1′ 45″ N., long. 85° 34′ E. South-west of the village, and on the opposite side of the river, stands the peak at the end of the double range of hills commencing near Gayá, which General Cunningham identifies with Fa Hian's Solitary Mountain, suggesting at the same time that its name is derived from *ek-girí*, or 'one hill;' but this statement has been doubted. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton has described the ruins of Giriyák, which are full of archæological interest. They were originally ascended from the north-east; and remains of a road about 12 feet wide, paved with large stone blocks, and winding so as to procure a moderate gradient, still exist. It could, however, never have been practicable for wheeled carriages. At the west end of the ridge, a steep brick slope leads up to a platform, on which there are some granite pillars, probably part of an ancient temple. East of the ridge is an area 45 feet square, called the *chabutara* of Jarasindhu, the centre of which is occupied by a low square pedestal supporting a solid brick column 68 feet in circumference and 55 feet in height. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton considers the general impression that the ruins on this hill are the remains of Jarasindhu's country house erroneous for the ascent to Giriyák must always have been too arduous to render it a place of luxurious retirement. The popular belief is that Krishna, on his way to challenge Jarasindhu to combat, crossed the river at this point, and a bathing festival is annually held at the spot in the month of Kártik to commemorate the event.

Girnár.—Sacred hill, with ruined temples, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated about 10 miles east of Junágarh town. Lat. 21° 30′ N., long. 70° 42′ E. The hill rises to about 3500 feet above sea-level, and forms one of the sacred seats of Jainism, only second in

importance to Pálitána. A rock at the foot of the hill outside the town is covered with a set of Asoka's inscriptions, 250 B.C. Another inscription (150 A.D.) relates how the local monarch, Rudra Dama, defeated the king of the Deccan; while a third (457 A.D.) records the bursting of the embankment of the Sudarsana tank, and the rebuilding of a bridge which was destroyed by the flood. There are, however, no remains of any ancient city, temples, or ruins of a corresponding age to these inscriptions, and but for their dates the place would have seemed to be unknown before the 10th century.

There are six *parabs* or rest-houses on the ascent to the temple of Nemináth. The temple of Ambamáta, which crowns the first peak of the hill, is much resorted to by newly-married couples of the different sub-divisions of the Bráhman caste. The bride and bridegroom have their clothes tied together, and attended by their male and female relatives, present cocoa-nuts and other offerings to the goddess, whose favour is sought to secure a continuance of wedded felicity.

Mr. James Fergusson, in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (John Murray, 1876, pp. 230–232), thus describes the architectural features of Girnár: —'The principal group of temples at Girnár, some sixteen in number, is situated on a ledge about 600 feet from the summit, and nearly 3000 feet above the level of the sea. The largest and possibly the oldest of these is that of Nemináth. An inscription upon it records that it was repaired in A.D. 1278, and unfortunately a subsequent restorer has laid his heavy hand upon it, so that it is difficult now to realize what its original appearance may have been. The temple stands in a courtyard measuring 195 feet by 130 feet over all. Around the courtyard are arranged 70 cells, with a covered and enclosed passage in front of them, each of which contains a cross-legged seated figure of the Tirthankar to whom the temple is dedicated (Nemináth), and generally with a bas-relief or picture representing some act in his life. Immediately behind the temple of Nemináth is a triple one, erected by the brothers Tejpála and Vastupála, who also erected one of the principal temples in Abu.'

Gírwa.—River of Nepál and Oudh; a branch of the KAURIALA, leaving that stream on its eastern bank a mile below the point where it emerges through a gorge in the Himaláyas known as Shísha-paní or 'Crystal waters.' Some years ago, the Gírwa was a mere watercourse, but its volume has gradually increased till it is now considerably larger than the parent stream. Both are rapid rivers; their beds covered with large pebbles, often a foot in diameter, particularly at the fords where they are broad and shallow, enabling elephants to cross generally without difficulty. Both streams are about 400 yards broad, and from 3 to 4 feet deep; they are unfordable by men, except at one or two

places. The Gírwa in particular is a beautiful stream, its banks being covered with dense *sál*, with the mountains showing over the tree-tops. In many places the river has worn for itself large clearings amid the jungle, several miles broad, through which the water passes in several clear channels. The islands thus formed are generally covered with *shisham* trees and thickets of willow. Diagonally across the stream in its upper course extend ridges of *kankar* or conglomerate limestone, forming rapids, and causing a complete obstruction to navigation. In its lower course, the Gírwa enters Bahráich District, and finally reunites with the Kauriála a few miles below Bharthapur. The stream is navigable by large boats up to Dhanaura, just beyond British territory. The waters of the Kauriála and Gírwa, afterwards swelled by the SARJU and CHAUKA (or Sardá), finally become the GOGRA, or great river of Oudh.

Girwán (or *Sihonda*).—South-westerly *tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of hilly eminences sloping down into an elevated plain, with detached granite rocks. Area, 331 square miles, of which 183 are cultivated. Population (1881) 88,651, namely, males 44,558, and females 44,093. Hindus numbered 82,129; Muhammadans, 6517; and 'others,' 5. Number of villages, 176; land revenue, £14,802; total Government revenue, £16,529; rental paid by cultivators, £27,409. The *tahsíl*, which is usually called Sihonda, although its head-quarters are at Girwán town, contains the famous fortress of Kálinjar.

Goa.—Portuguese Settlement on the western coast of India, lying between 14° 53′ and 15° 48′ N. lat., and between 73° 45′ and 74° 24′ E. long., about 250 miles south-south-east from Bombay. Bounded on the north by the river Tirakul or Auraundem, separating it from the Sáwantwári State; on the east by the range of the Western Gháts, separating it from the District of Belgáum; on the south by North Kánara District; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. Extreme length from north to south, 62 miles; greatest breadth from east to west, 40 miles. Total area, 3370 square kilometres or 1062 square miles. Population (1881), including Anjediva, 445,449, or 419·4 persons per square mile. Number of towns, 4; villages, 400; parishes, 100; and houses, 87,196.

Goa forms a patch of foreign territory on the coast of the Bombay Presidency, surrounded on all sides, except to the seaward, by British Districts. It comprises the following 9 Districts, namely (Old Conquests), Ilhas (population 48,847); Salsette (109,620); Bardez (109,951); (New Conquests), Pernem (population 33,012); Sanquelim (45,179); Ponda (39,998); Sanguem (20,592); Quepem (19,663); and Canacona (18,490). It was not practicable to extend to this settlement the minute statistical survey which was carried out in British territory, and a personal visit disclosed the impossibility of

adhering to the same arrangement. The following account was kindly drawn up for the *Imperial Gazetteer* by Dr. Jose Nicolau da Fonseca, President of the Sociedade dos Amigos das Letras, from official sources in Goa; it is now printed (as requested) with as few modifications as possible, although in a much condensed form, and with some historical amplifications.

Physical Aspects.—Goa is a hilly country, especially that portion which was most recently acquired, known as the Novas Conquistas (New Conquests). Its distinguishing feature is the Sahyádri Mountains, or Western Gháts, which, after skirting a considerable portion of the north-eastern and south-eastern boundaries, branch off westwards across the territory into numerous spurs and ridges. Of the isolated peaks with which these ranges of mountains are studded, the most conspicuous are, on the north—Sonságar, 3827 feet above sea-level; Catlanchimauli, 3633 feet; Vaguerim, 3500 feet; Morlemchogor, 3400 feet, all in the Satári *mahal* or District; on the east and west—Sidnato at Ponda, Chandarnate at Chandrawadi, Consid at Astragar, and Dudeagar at Embarbákam.

The territory is intersected by numerous rivers, which are generally navigable. Beginning on the north, the eight principal rivers are—(1) The Tirakul or Auraundem, so called from the fortress of that name guarding its estuary; has its source in the Western Gháts, in the Sáwantwári State, flows south-west for 14½ miles, and, after forming the northern boundary of the District of Pernem, and also of the territory of Goa, discharges its waters into the Arabian Sea: (2) the Chápora or Colvalle, 18 miles long, rises at Rám Ghát, and, after separating the Districts of Bárdez, Bicholim, and Sanquelim from Pernem, takes a zigzag direction to the south-west through the villages of Salem, Revora, Colvalle, and empties itself into the sea close to the village of Chápora: (3) the Bága, only 1 mile long, rises in Bárdez, and passes a redoubt of the same name: (4) the Sinquerim, 3½ miles long, also rises in Bárdez close to the village of Pilerne, and, after describing almost a right angle, westwards and southwards, and forming the peninsula of Aguada, falls into the bay of the same name: (5) the Mandávi, 38½ miles in length, is the most important stream in the territory, both the ancient and modern metropolis being situated on its banks; it rises at Parvar Ghát in the District of Satári, first runs north-west of Ponda, and then south-west of Bicholim and Bárdez, and, after forming several islands and passing Panjim or New Goa, discharges its waters into the Bay of Aguada; its principal offshoots pass the villages of Mapuca, Tivim, and Assonora, watering the Districts of Bicholim, Sanquelim, and Zambaulim, and are locally known by those names: (6) the Juari, 39 miles in length, rises at the foot of Digny Ghát in the District of Embarbákam, runs northwards,

separating Salsette from Ponda, and falls into the Bay of Murmagao; like the Mandávi, it has numerous offshoots, one of which joins the former river between Marcaim and Sao Lourenço after forming the island of Tissuadi: (7) the Sál, 15 miles long, runs close to the town of Margao, and discharges itself into the sea near the fort of Betúl: (8) the Talpona, 7 miles long, rises at Ambughát in the District of Astragar, and, running westwards through the District of Canacona, falls into the sea near the small fort of Talpona. The boats by which these rivers are navigated are called *tonas*, and the ferries across them are designated *passa-gens*.

The territory of Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bárdez and Salsette. Half-way between these extremities projects the *cabo* (cape) from the island of Goa, dividing the harbour into two anchorages, known as Alguada and Murmagao. Both are capable of accommodating safely the largest shipping from September to May. Alguada is virtually closed to navigation during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea, and the formation of sandbanks in the estuary of the Mandávi at that period; but Murmagao is accessible at all times. A consequence of the intersection of numerous rivers, is the formation of many islands, of which the chief number 18.

The rainfall for the three years ending 1875, as registered by the Meteorological Department, averaged 100·22 inches. The prevailing diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, diarrhœa, and dysentery.

Laterite is the stone most abundant throughout the territory. Iron is found at Bága Satári, Pernem, and especially in the District of Zambaulim. The geological resources of Goa have not yet been scientifically explored.

Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. The reserve and other forests scattered over an area of 30,000 *hectares*, or 74,133 acres, have an aggregate value, according to the Report of the Forest Committee of 1871, of £700,000. The wasteful practice of *kumri* or nomadic cultivation, till lately prevalent, has denuded them of valuable trees. More attention is now paid to this branch of public administration, which is entrusted to a special department. In 1874, the forest revenue amounted to £1040, 7s. 6d., and the expenditure to £429, 16s.

Population.—The population of Goa Proper, in 1800, *i.e.* the Velhas without the Novas Conquistas, was calculated at 178,478; composed of 91,436 males and 87,042 females. The whole population of the Velhas (old) and Novas (new) Conquistas, according to the Census of 1851, was 363,788; showing a density of 342·54 to the square mile.

The population of the territory of Goa in 1881, according to the

Census Report of that year, was 445,449, as shown by the table on the opposite page, being an increase of 81,661 since 1851, or 22·4 per cent. in 30 years.

The inhabitants are divided into three classes—(1) Europeans, (2) the descendants of Europeans, and (3) Natives. The last class may be again sub-divided into Christians and Pagans. The native Christians, who constitute a little more than half of the total population, are the descendants of Hindus converted to Christianity on the subjugation of the country by the Portuguese, and can still trace the caste to which they originally belonged. The predominating caste among the Pagans is that of Shenvis, or Saraswati Bráhmans. Chitpáwans and Karádás are also to be found, as well as the low or depressed castes, such as Mahárs, Chamárs, etc., who are generally to be distinguished by their darker colour. The few Musalmáns are, as a class, in a poor condition. The males among native Christians for the most part adopt European costumes, while the females still wear the indigenous *sárí*. The ordinary expenses of a middle-class family seldom exceed £3 a month. All classes of the people, except Europeans, use the Konkáni language, with some admixture of Portuguese words. But the official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns, as well as by all educated persons. French is understood by some, and English chiefly by those who have resided for a long time in British territories.

The majority of the population profess the Roman Catholic religion, and are subject in spiritual matters to an Archbishop, who has the title of the Primate of the East, and exercises jurisdiction over the Catholics of all the Portuguese colonies in the East, and of a great portion of British India. His nomination rests with the King of Portugal, subject to confirmation by the Pope. There are altogether 96 Christian churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and the Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The chief of these churches is the cathedral or metropolitan church, called the *Se Primacial de Goa*. The religious orders have been abolished in Portuguese India, and the churches are under the charge of secular priests, all of whom are natives of Goa. The Catholics of Goa are very regular in the fulfilment of religious duties, and celebrate the chief festivals sanctioned by the Catholic Church with much devotion and pomp. The Hindus and Muhammadans enjoy perfect liberty in religious matters, and have their own places of worship. The chief Hindu temples are those of Mangesh, Málshá, Sántádurgá, Kapleshwar, Nágesh, and Ramnáth, all of which are situated in the Novas Conquistas.

At the conquest of Goa by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510, the

[*Sentence continued on p. 92.*

Population of the Portuguese Settlement of Goa in 1881.

Districts.		Total Population.			Details of the Population.									
								Age.		Civil Condition.			
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Europeans and Americans.	Africans and Others.	Eurasian and Native Christians.	Under 12 years.	Above 12 years.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowers & Widows.	Total.
Old Conquests.	1. Ilhas, . . .	25,518	23,329	48,847	513	91	33,376	12,675	36,172	22,352	20,635	5,860	48,847
	2. Salsette, . . .	53,580	56,040	109,620	72	38	102,641	29,512	80,108	59,590	37,346	12,684	109,620
	3. Bárdez, . . .	53,398	56,553	109,951	11	87	88,830	31,053	78,898	50,403	45,343	14,205	109,951
New Conquests.	4. Pernem, . . .	16,603	16,409	33,012	...	...	5,837	9,480	23,532	13,033	15,493	4,486	33,012
	5. Sanquelim, . .	23,382	21,797	45,179	14	2	2,742	13,929	31,250	18,374	20,590	6,215	45,179
	6. Ponda, . . .	20,719	19,279	39,998	...	...	7,504	11,207	28,791	17,107	17,266	5,625	39,998
	7. Sanguem, . .	10,798	9,794	20,592	...	12	3,777	6,345	14,247	8,945	8,707	2,940	20,592
	8. Quepem, . . .	10,153	9,510	19,663	3	...	7,913	6,071	13,592	8,722	8,247	2,694	19,663
	9. Canacona, . .	9,664	8,826	18,490	2	...	3,897	5,923	12,567	8,101	7,696	2,693	18,490
Island of Angediva, . .		54	43	97	...	...	94	15	82	49	31	17	97
Grand Totals, . .		223,869	221,580	445,449	615	230	256,611	126,210	319,239	206,676	181,354	57,419	445,449

[*Sentence continued from p.* 90.
village communities, among which the inhabitants were distributed, were found to be in the enjoyment of certain immunities from taxation and of other privileges. Albuquerque carefully maintained the constitution of the villages, and avoided all appearance of fresh taxation. The same policy was followed by his successors; and in 1526, a register was compiled, called *Foral dos usas e Costumes*, containing the peculiar usage and customs of the communities, and the privileges enjoyed by them from time immemorial. This register served as a guide-book to subsequent administrators. But in time the communities were burdened with additional imposts, and placed under certain restrictions. At present they are under the supervision of Government, which appoints in each District (*conselho*) of the Velhas Conquistas, an officer called Administrador das Communidades, to watch rigidly over their proceedings. They are precluded from spending even the smallest sum without Government sanction, and have to pay certain contributions to the parish churches and for the construction and repair of roads, the establishment of schools, etc. The staff of village servants is not the same in all parts, but it usually comprises the following members :—The tax-collector (*sacador*), the clerk (*escrivao*), the carpenter (*carpinteiro*), the barber (*barbeiro*), the shoemaker (*alparqueiro*), the washerman (*mainato*), the crier (*parpoti*), and the *mahár* (*faraz*). There is, however, no village head-man. On questions affecting the interests of a whole village, a sort of *pancháyat* or council is held, composed of one or more members of each clan (*vangor*), and the decisions are determined by the majority of votes. In the Velhas Conquistas, a great portion of the land is held by the village communities, which, after paying the rent and other Government taxes, divide the annual produce amongst themselves; while in the Novas Conquistas the lands are distributed among the *vangors*, who cultivate them and enjoy their net produce. The total number of village communities is 421. The aggregate revenue of the villages comprehended in the Velhas Conquistas amounted in 1872 to £77,111, 16s., against an expenditure of £26,436, 6s. 8d.

Agriculture.—The entire territory of Goa contains 679,680 acres, of which 234,754 acres are stated to be under cultivation, thus distributed among the different crops :—Rice, 122,566 acres; other cereals, vegetables, etc., 77,076; cocoa-nut trees, 33,194; areca palms, 565; and fruit trees the remainder. The soil is chiefly argillaceous, but also contains light sand and more or less decayed vegetable matter. In many parts it is full of stone and gravel. Its fertility varies according to quality and situation in reference to the supply of water. Manure, consisting of ashes, fish, and dung, is largely employed. As a rule, the Velhas Conquistas are better cultivated than the Novas Conquistas. In

both these divisions of the Goa territory, a holding of 15 or 16 acres would be considered a good-sized farm, though the majority of holdings are of smaller extent.

The staple produce of the country is rice (Oryza sativa), of which there are two harvests—(1) the winter crop, called *sorodio*, and (2) the summer crop or *vangana*, raised by means of artificial irrigation from the rain-water accumulated in reservoirs, ponds, and wells. For the *sorodio* crop, the field is ploughed before the commencement of the monsoon, the seed scattered in May or June, and the crop harvested in September; while as regards the *vangana*, the ploughing operations begin in October, the sowing in November, and the harvesting in February. Rice is cultivated in low lands (*cazana* or *cantor*) situated near the banks of rivers, slopes of hills (*molloy*), stiff grounds (*dulpan* or *dulip*), and sandy soils (*quero*). The proportion of produce to seed is roughly estimated as follows:—Near the banks of rivers, fifteen-fold; in dry and stiff soils, six-fold; and in other places, eight-fold. The quantity of rice produced is barely sufficient to meet the local demand for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of cocoa-nut trees (Cocos nucifera) is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. They grow in luxuriant groves on all lands not hilly or serviceable for the production of rice, and along the sea-coast. Areca palm (Areca catechu) is chiefly cultivated in the Novas Conquistas on lands irrigated from rivulets. Hilly places and inferior soils are set apart for the cultivation of such cereals as *nachinim* (Dolichos biflora), *urid* (Phaseolus max), *culita* (Dolichos uniflorus), *orio* (Panicum italicum), *mug* (Phaseolus radiatus), *tori* (Cytisus cajan). Of fruit-trees the most important are mango (Mangifera indica), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), cashew (Anacardium occidentale). Among the various kinds of vegetables are potato (Convolvulus batata), radishes (Raphanus sativus), yams (Dioscorea sativa), melons (Cucumis melo), cucumber (Cucumis sativus), *bendas* (Abelmoschus esculentus), etc. Besides these—chillies (Capsicum frutescens), ginger (Zinziber officinale), turmeric (Curcuma longa), onion (Allium cepa), and certain vegetables of daily consumption are extensively cultivated in some villages. In the District of Satári a party of enterprising foreigners rented some years ago from Government certain plots of ground for coffee plantations. Several experiments were tried, but the result did not prove encouraging.

Goa is seldom subject to great floods, though some of its Districts occasionally suffer from partial inundation during heavy rains. In times of drought, the agricultural classes sustain heavy loss, but the people at large are supplied, though at great cost, with rice from British territory. It is only when a general famine occurs beyond the frontier that signs of extreme distress are visible amongst the inhabitants

of Goa. Formerly the country was frequently subject to famine. The years 1553, 1570, and 1682 are said to have been seasons of great scarcity. In subsequent years, the constant incursions of the Maráthás occasioned much distress.

The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has of late improved, owing partly to the general rise in prices of all kinds of agricultural produce, and partly to the current of emigration to British territories. In the Novas Conquistas, however, the cultivators are said to have been reduced to great want and misery through the oppression of the landowners.

Commerce and Manufactures.—In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepôt of commerce between the East and West. But with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire, it lost its commercial importance, and its trade has now dwindled into insignificance. Few manufacturing industries of any importance exist, but the country is not devoid of skilful artisans, such as goldsmiths, carpenters, blacksmiths, shoemakers, etc. Some of the articles produced are disposed of privately, while others are exposed for sale at the annual and weekly fairs held in various places. The principal exports are — cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, mangoes, water-melons, jack, and other fruits; cinnamon, pepper, salt fish, gum, coir-work, firewood, fowls, and salt. Of these the last forms one of the principal sources of profit, the numerous salt-pans that exist in the country yielding a large quantity of salt over and above the local demand. The chief articles imported are—rice, cloth, refined sugar, wines, tobacco, glass-ware, hardware, and other miscellaneous goods. The value of the imports largely exceeds that of the exports, thus causing a drain of money which would certainly have materially affected the financial condition of Goa, had not a stream of coin flowed constantly into the country from the savings of those of its inhabitants who reside temporarily in British territory. In 1874, the customs revenue amounted to £21,388, 18s. The total number of vessels of every kind that entered the port of Goa in the same year was 1075, with 97,900 tons of cargo, while the number of those that left was 2084, with 119,756 tons.

A line of railway now connects Murmagao with Hubli on the Southern Maráthá Railway, the length of line to Hubli being 124 miles, of which 49 miles lie in Goa territory. Several new roads have recently been made, and others are in course of construction. According to the report of the Committee of Engineers, published in 1870, there were in that year 31 roads, complete and incomplete; of these the chief runs northwards from Verem, opposite Panjim, through the villages of Pilerne, Saligao, Parramaprica, and Assonora, meeting at Sankarwalle the road constructed in British territory.

There are no banking establishments or professional money-lenders

in the country; but in cases of necessity, money can be borrowed from wealthy proprietors or religious confraternities at 5 per cent. In districts inhabited by Hindus, however, the current rate of interest is about 10 per cent. Landowners not unfrequently advance petty sums, or their equivalent in kind, without interest, to such of the cultivators or labourers as are their dependants, or live in their *oarts* (palmares), deducting the debt by monthly instalments from the wages due. In the Novas Conquistas, the rate of interest charged for an advance of grain is generally half as much as the value of the advance.

Owing to the want of labourers, and the comparative increase in the price of grain, wages have of late risen considerably. Formerly they varied from 2d. to 3d. a day, but at present a male labourer earns as much as 6d., and a female 2½d. Agricultural labourers generally receive their wages in kind, either daily or weekly. Good masons and carpenters are paid at the rate of 1s. per diem; and male servants at about 4s. per month, besides food. Wherever female servants are employed, they, as a rule, receive no fixed wages, but it is usual to give them periodically some suits of clothes, and jewels on the occasion of marriage. The average price of a cow is about £1; of a pair of oxen, £5; of a pair of buffaloes, £5; of a pig, £1; of a score of fowls, 10s.; and of a score of ducks, £1. In 1874-75, rice sold at 26 lbs. per rupee (2s.); *urid*, at 30 lbs.; *culita*, at 50 lbs.

Administration.—Previous to 1871, Goa possessed a comparatively large Native army, but owing to the rebellion which broke out in that year it was disbanded, and a battalion composed wholly of Europeans was obtained from Portugal. The force now consists of 313 men of all ranks. The entire strength of the police is 919 men. The total expenditure on the public force was in 1874, £49,687, 6s.

There is at present no naval force at Goa; but in the year 1874-75, the Settlement contributed a sum of £9815, 15s. towards the maintenance of the Portuguese navy.

There is one telegraph office in Goa, at Panjim, maintained jointly by the British and Portuguese Governments, the latter contributing yearly the sum of £160, besides paying £3 monthly as house rent. The receipts amounted to £198, 3s. 9d., and the expenditure to £256, 11s. 6¼d. The head-quarters of the post-office are also at Panjim, with branches at Margao, Mapuça, Ponda, Bicholim, Chinchinim, and Pernem. Letters sent from Goa to any part of British India, or *vice versa*, bear the postage stamps issued by both Governments. The total postal receipts in 1874-75 were £1815, 6s.

There are two hospitals—one for military men; and the other for the poor and destitute, called 'Hospital da Santa Caza de Misericordia' (Hospital of the Holy House of Mercy). In the year 1875, the latter contained 520 inmates, of whom 226 were females. The most

important charitable institutions are—the Santa Caza de Misericordia (Holy House of Mercy), at Chimbel; Sociedade de Caridade (Charitable Society), at Panjim; Hospicio de Sagrodo Coraçao de Maria (Asylum of the Sacred Heart of Mary), at Margao; and Asylo de Nossa Senhora de Milagres (Asylum of our Lady of Miracles), at Mapuça. The first is coeval with the conquest of Goa by the Portuguese, and maintains the hospital alluded to above and two establishments for the reformation and education of females. In 1874, these two houses contained a total of 48 inmates.

Of late years, education has made considerable progress in Goa. In 1869–70 there were 137 lower schools, of which 52 were public and 85 private, with 6027 pupils of both sexes; 29 higher schools, of which 21 were public and 8 private, including 1 national lyceum or college, with 2433 pupils; 1 medical school, with 60 pupils; 1 school of chemistry, with 48 pupils; 1 mathematical and military school, with 137 pupils; 1 seminary for priests, with 92 pupils. Besides these, there are 3 public schools for girls. Since 1870 the military school has been closed, and a college for practical sciences, called Instituto Professional, established in its place. Besides the Government Gazette, called *Boletim do Governo*, there are five weekly periodicals—viz. (1) *A'Gazeta de Bárdes*, (2) *A'India Portuguêsa*, (3) *A'Nova Goa*, (4) *A'Patria*, and (5) *O'Ultramar*, all edited in the Portuguese language by natives. In addition, there is a Portuguese religious paper called *A'Cruz*, and a Maráthí newspaper called *Desha Sudhárnechá*. Of the four literary associations established in the country, the most important is the Instituto Vasco da Gama.

The total revenue in 1873–74 was £108,148, 10s., and the expenditure, £107,145, 18s. The sources of revenue are—tithes at 10 per cent. on rice, cocoa-nuts, and salt, customs and postal dues, seal and stamp duties, tobacco licences, taxes on liquor-shops, etc.

Goa is regarded as an integral portion of the Portuguese Empire, and, with Damán and Diu, forms, for administrative purposes, one Province subject to a Governor-General, who is appointed directly by the King of Portugal, and holds his office for five years. Besides his civil functions, he is invested with the supreme military authority in the Province. His personal staff consists of two aides-de-camp, and a secretary styled the Chief Secretary of the Governor-General of Portuguese India, and likewise appointed by the king. Although he is the chief executive functionary, the Governor-General cannot, except in cases of emergency, impose new taxes, or abolish the existing ones, contract loans, create new appointments, or reduce the old ones, retrench the salaries attached to them, or generally incur any expenses not sanctioned by law; nor can he, under any circumstances, leave the Province without the special permission of the Home Government.

In the administration of the Province, the Governor-General is aided by a council composed of the Chief Secretary, the Archbishop of Goa, or, in his absence, the chief ecclesiastical authority exercising his functions, the Judges of the High Court, the two highest military officers in Goa, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the Junta de Fazenda Publica (council of public revenue), the Health Officer, and the President of the Municipal Chamber or Corporation of the Capital (camara municipal de capital). As a rule, all the members give their opinions, and vote in every matter on which they are consulted by the Governor-General. There are also three other Juntas or councils, called the Junta Geral da Provincia (general council of the Province), the Junta da Fazenda Publica (council of public revenue), and the Conselho de Provincia (the council of the Province). The first of these is composed of the Chief Secretary, the Archbishop or his substitute, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the Junta da Fazenda Publica, the Director of Public Works, the Health Officer, a Professor of the Medico-Surgical College, a Professor of the Instituto Professional, a Professor of the Lyceum, a Professor of the Normal School, and a representative from each of the municipal corporations of the Province. This Junta discusses and decides all questions relating to public works, and the expenses necessary for their execution, the preservation of public health, the establishment of schools, the alteration of custom duties, etc. The Governor-General is empowered to suspend the operation of any resolution passed by this Junta, pending a reference to the Home Government. The second council consists of the Governor-General as President, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the same council, and the Accountant-General. This Junta exercises a direct and active control over the public revenues, making the requisite provisions for their proper collection and expenditure; and no public expense can be made without its sanction. The third council is altogether of inferior importance.

In addition to the above machinery of administration, there are subordinate agencies for the local government of the different districts. In connection with these agencies, the entire territory of Goa is divided into two tracts, known as the Velhas and Novas Conquistas (old and new conquests). The former tract is sub-divided into three districts (conselhos)—viz. the Ilhas, Bárdez, and Salsette—and each of these again into parishes, of which there are 85 in all. Every district has a municipal corporation, and is placed under the charge of a functionary called Administrador da Conselho. This officer is appointed by the Governor-General, and is entrusted with duties of an administrative character, besides those connected with the public safety and health. Every parish has likewise a minor council, called Junta da Parochia, presided over by a magistrate, called Regedor, whose duties are to

inspect and direct the police establishments of the parish, keep a strict surveillance over liquor-shops, gaming-houses, etc., open wills and testaments, and report generally every important occurrence to the Administrador. Similarly in each of the six divisions into which the Novas Conquistas are sub-divided, there is an officer called Administrador Fiscal, whose duties are almost identical with those of the Administrador da Conselho. The functions of a Regedor are here exercised by a village *kulkarni*. Of the above-named six divisions, the first is Pernem; the second, Sanquelim, or Satári and Bicholim; the third, Ponda; the fourth, Sanguem, or Astagrár and Embarbákam; the fifth, Quepem, or Bally, Chandorowadi, and Cacora; and the sixth, Canacona with Cabo de Ráma. Each of the sub-divisions of the Velhas and Novas Conquistas is also known by the name of Province. The offices of Governor, Chief Secretary, Attorney-General, and some other important ones are almost invariably filled by Europeans; while those of Administrador da Conselho and Regedor are held by natives. As stated above, there are three municipalities in the Velhas Conquistas, the chief being that of the Ilhas. The municipal receipts in 1874–75 amounted to £1232, 15s.

Goa and its dependencies in India, viz. Damán and Diu, together with Mozambique, Macao, and Timor, constitute, for judicial purposes, but one judicial district. This district is divided into Comarcas, which are sub-divided into Julgados, and these again into Tregulsias or parishes. Each parish is superintended by a justice of the peace, whose appointment is honorary. It is the duty of this functionary to arbitrate between litigants in civil suits, except those affecting the interests of minors, and those relating to mortmain; to institute preliminary inquiries into criminal matters previous to their submission for trial; to try municipal offences, and decide petty suits not exceeding in amount or value 2500 *reis* (12s.). Against his decision an appeal lies to the court of a judge of higher jurisdiction called Juiz Ordinario.

In every Julgado there is a Juiz Ordinario, with an establishment consisting of a sub-delegate of the Attorney-General, two clerks, two or more bailiffs, and a translator or interpreter. All these officials are paid by Government, and are besides entitled to fees, except the clerks, who receive fees only. A Juiz Ordinario holds his sittings twice a week, for the purpose of deciding civil and criminal cases within his jurisdiction. The former are chiefly connected with disputes concerning landed property not exceeding the value of £2, or moveable property not exceeding £6. The latter relate to offences for which no higher punishment can be awarded than a fine of 15s., or three days' rigorous imprisonment.

The Juiz de Direito holds the next grade, in charge of a Comarca, with a staff composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General, three

clerks, one interpreter and translator, an accountant, four or five bailiffs, all of whom, except the clerks and accountant, receive, in addition to certain fees, fixed salaries. A judge of this class exercises ordinary and extraordinary jurisdiction in matters both civil and criminal. He is required to go on circuit annually to the Julgados, where he hears complaints against subordinate functionaries, examines their proceedings and registers, and sometimes tries those suits within his jurisdiction which may not have been submitted to his tribunal by the ordinary judges. His decision in suits relating to landed property exceeding in value £10, and moveable property above £15, are subject to appeal to the High Court of Goa. Within the limits of the Julgado, where the seat of his tribunal is fixed, this officer exercises the functions of a judge of ordinary jurisdiction as well as those of a district judge.

The supervision of all the above judges is entrusted to a High Court (Tribunal da Relaçao), whose seat is in Nova Goa (New Goa), in consequence of which it is sometimes called Relaçao de Nova Goa. This court consists of a Chief Justice (Presidente) and 3 puisne judges, with a staff consisting of an Attorney-General, an assistant, a registrar, 2 assistant registrars, an accountant, and 2 bailiffs, all drawing salaries from the public treasury besides certain perquisites. The High Court has jurisdiction, both ordinary and extraordinary, in all cases, whether civil or criminal, and is invested with appellate powers. Its decisions are final in all suits except those relating to immoveable property exceeding in value £150, and moveable property above £250, in which an appeal lies to the Supreme Tribunal of Portugal. Besides the High Court, there are in Goa 3 courts of the Juiz de Direito, established in the three Comarcas of the Ilhas, Bárdez, and Salsette. The Ilhas are divided into two Julgados—(1) Panjim, and (2) Ponda. Bárdez into four—(1) Mapuça, the chief town of the Comarca, (2) Calangute, (3) Pernem, (4) Bicholim. Salsette into three—(1) Margao, (2) Chinchinim, and (3) Quepem. The offices of the judges of the High Court, and of Comarcas, are filled by Europeans, and those of the Julgados by natives. The total sum spent on judicial administration in 1873–74 amounted to £5551, 16s. The following are the statistics of the High Court in 1874:—Civil judgments, 167; criminal judgments, 164; total, 331.

History.—Certain inscriptions lately deciphered corroborate the evidence of the *Puránás* that Goa was in ancient times known under the various names of Gomanchala, Gomant, Goapuri, Gopakapur, and Gopa-Kapatanua; while recent investigations prove its identity with the Sindábur of Arab writers. The accounts handed down from antiquity teem with legendary tales, on which little reliance can be placed. In the Sahyádri Khánda of the *Skanda Purána*, it is recorded that at an early period the Aryans settled in Goa, having been brought

by Parasuráma from Trihotrapur or Mithila, the modern Tirhút. Some of the inscriptions referred to above show that Goa afterwards passed under the sway of the Kadambas or Banawási, whose first king, Trilochana Kadamba, is supposed to have flourished in Káliyug 3220, or about A.D. 109–110. This dynasty continued to rule until 1312, when Goa fell for the first time into the hands of the Muhammadans, under Malik Kafur. They were, however, compelled to evacuate it in 1370, having been defeated by Vydyáranya Mádhawa, the Prime Minister of Harihara of Vijayanagar, under whose successors Goa remained for about 100 years. In 1449 it was conquered by Muhammad Gawan, the general of Muhammad II., the 13th Báhmani King of the Deccan, and incorporated into the dominions of that sovereign. After the downfall of this house, Goa became subject to the Adil Sháhí dynasty reigning at Bijápur, about the time that Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut in 1498. This dynasty retained possession until the 17th February 1510, when Goa was captured by Alfonso d'Albuquerque.

The Portuguese fleet, consisting of 20 sail of the line, with a few small vessels and 1200 fighting men, hove in sight of the harbour. A holy mendicant or *jogi* had lately foretold its conquest by a foreign people from a distant land, and the disheartened citizens rendered up the town to the strangers. Eight leading men presented the keys of the gates to Albuquerque on their knees, together with a large banner which was only unfurled on State occasions. Mounted on a richly caparisoned steed, Albuquerque entered the city in a triumphal procession, drums beating, trumpets sounding, with the Portuguese banners carried by the flower of the Lisbon nobility and clergymen at the head, amidst the acclamations of an immense multitude, who showered upon the conqueror filagree flowers of silver and gold. Albuquerque behaved well to the inhabitants, but was shortly afterwards expelled by the Bijápur ruler.

Yusaf Adil Sháh, King of Bijápur, marched against the place with a considerable force, and after several sanguinary contests, retook it from the Portuguese on the 15th August of the same year. Reinforced, however, by the large armament which opportunely arrived from Portugal about this time, Albuquerque hastened back to Goa with his fleet, and conquered it a second time on the 25th of November. With 28 ships, carrying 1700 men, he forced his way into the town after a bloody assault, in which 2000 Musalmáns fell. For three days the miserable citizens were given over as a prey to every atrocity. The fifth part of the plunder, reserved for the Portuguese Crown, amounted to £20,000. Albuquerque promptly occupied himself in fortifying the place, embellishing the city, and establishing the Portuguese rule on a firm basis.

From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance, and eventually became the metropolis of the Portuguese Empire in the East, which is said to have comprehended an area of about 4000 leagues. In 1543, during the governorship of Martin Alfonso, who came to India together with the celebrated St. Francis Xavier, the two important Provinces or *mahals* of Bárdez and Salsette were ceded to the Portuguese by Ibráhím Adil Sháh, who, however, not long afterwards, attempted to regain them, but was foiled in his endeavours by the intrepidity of Dom João de Castro. To provide against any future invasion on the part of the Muhammadans, the eastern part of the island of Goa was protected by means of a long wall. In 1570, Alí Adil Sháh besieged the city with an army of 100,000 men; but it was so bravely defended by the little garrison under the Viceroy Dom Luis de Athaide that the Muhammadan army, greatly thinned in number, retreated precipitately after a tedious siege of ten months' duration. About this period, the Portuguese were alarmed by the appearance on the coast of India of a new enemy. The Dutch, having shaken off the Spanish yoke, assumed a warlike attitude towards the Portuguese, owing to the intimate connection between Portugal and Spain.

The subsequent history of the town has been one of luxury, ostentation, and decay. After bearing a siege by the King of Bijápur, and suffering from a terrible epidemic, Goa reached the summit of its prosperity at the end of the 16th century. During the very years when the English Company was struggling into existence under Elizabeth, 'Goa Dourada,' or Golden Goa, seemed a place of fabulous wealth to the plain merchants who were destined to be the founders of British India. 'Whoever hath seen Goa, need not see Lisbon,' said a proverb of that day. Indeed, if the accounts of travellers are to be trusted, Goa presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical, and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the European capitals of India. The descriptions that have been left of Calcutta in the last and during the first quarter of the present century, leave behind them a feeling of insignificance compared with the accounts of Goa, written nearly three hundred years ago. To find a parallel, we must go to the travellers' tales regarding Agra and Delhi during the zenith of the Mughal prosperity. The brilliant pomp and picturesque display of Goa was due to the fact that it was not only a flourishing harbour, but also the centre of a great military and ecclesiastical power. The Portuguese based their dominion in India on conquest by the sword. They laboured to consolidate it by a proselytizing organization, which throws the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. The result has proved how rotten was this basis, and how feebly cemented was the superstructure reared upon it. But during the greatness of Goa it had all the splendours which the church and a powerful military court could cast around it.

After the genius of Albuquerque and the energies of the early Viceroys had spent themselves, these armaments constituted a vast idle population in the capital. The work of conquest was over, and it left behind it a gay and wealthy society of conquerors who had nothing to do. Every Portuguese in India, says a traveller, set up as a 'Fidalgo' (*sic*). These gentlemen had to be amused. There were no hotels or inns in the city, but many boarding-houses and gambling saloons. The latter, writes a voyager in the 17th century, were sumptuously furnished, and paid a heavy tax to the Government. People of all classes frequented them, and entertainments were provided for the lookers-on by jugglers, dancing girls, musicians, wrestlers, and native actors or buffoons. 'Those who were inordinately fond of gambling stayed there sometimes for days together, and were provided with board and lodging.'

Such gambling houses were not places for respectable women, and while the male society thronged their saloons, the Portuguese ladies were rigorously shut up at home. The family income was derived from the labour of slaves, and as no 'Fidalgo' (*sic*) could follow a trade or calling without disgrace, so neither could his wife busy herself in domestic affairs without losing her social importance. The society of Goa, therefore, divided itself into two idle populations—an idle population of men in the streets and gambling houses, and an idle population of women in the seclusion of their own homes. This was one of the first results of the intensely military spirit, with its contempt for peaceful forms of industry, on which rested the Portuguese power in India. The ladies of Goa soon obtained an unenviable notoriety in books of travel. Excluded from male society, they spent their time in indolence, quarrelling, and frivolous pursuits. A European *zanána* life grew up, and brought with it some very ugly consequences. A lady valued herself in her female coterie upon the number and the daring of her intrigues. Almost every traveller who visited Goa during its prime tells the same curious story regarding the rashness with which the Portuguese matrons pursued their amours. Both Pyrard and Linschoten relate, in nearly the same words, how the ladies of Goa were wont to stupefy their husbands with *dhatúra*, and then admit their lovers. The perils of such interviews became almost necessary to give a zest to their profligacy, and the Goanese became a byword as the type of an idle, a haughty, and a corrupt society.

Strangers are inclined to laugh at Englishmen for adhering in India to the British costumes devised for a more temperate zone. There can be no doubt that the Dutch in Java have adapted their clothing much better to the climate than we have in Calcutta. But the very rigidity with which English society in India insists upon matters of dress is not without its value. It forms a perpetual check upon the tendency to fall into the slip-shod habits of Oriental domestic life. In Goa, these

habits were carried to an extreme length. At home, both ladies and gentlemen dressed very much like the natives, except for the large rosaries which they wore round their necks. While untidy and careless in their dress at home, they made an ostentatious display when they stirred abroad. When a gentleman rode out, he was attended by a throng of slaves in gay and fanciful liveries, some holding large umbrellas, others bearing richly inlaid arms; while the horse itself was loaded with gold and silver trappings, the reins studded with precious stones, with jingling silver bells attached, and the stirrups wrought into artistic shapes in gilt silver. The poor followed the example of the rich, and resorted to amusing makeshifts to maintain an air of dignity and grandeur. The gentlemen who lived together in a boarding-house had a few suits of silk clothes between them in common. These they used by turns when they went out, and hired a man to hold an umbrella over them as they strutted through the streets.

Holland, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, began to assert herself in the East. While our own East India Company was struggling into existence during the last years of Elizabeth, the Dutch were preparing to dispute with the Portuguese for the supremacy in the Indian Ocean. In 1603 they blockaded Goa. The attempt proved abortive; but it left behind it a struggle between the two nations, which, during the next seventy years, shattered and dismembered the Portuguese power in India. One by one, the Portuguese possessions fell into the hands of the Dutch; their fleets were captured, or driven within the shelter of their forts, and their commerce was swept from the seas. Goa suffered not only from these disasters, but also from a return of the fever which had afflicted the city in the preceding century. It broke out again in 1635, and raged for several years. Towards the end of this visitation, the Dutch once more blockaded Goa in 1639, but were again compelled to withdraw.

A period of pride and poverty followed, during which the splendour of the previous century was replaced by shabby devices to conceal the decay that had blighted the Portuguese power. In 1648, Tavernier admired the architectural grandeur of Goa, but was struck with the indigence of several Portuguese families whom he had seen in affluence and prosperity during his first visit. He says that many who had six years previously enjoyed an ample income, were now reduced to the necessity of secretly begging alms. 'Yet they did not put aside their vanity. The ladies were particularly observed going in palanquins to seek charitable relief, attended by servants who conveyed their messages to the persons whose assistance they implored.' 'The city,' says Thevenot in 1666, 'is great and full of beautiful churches and convents, and well adorned with palaces. There were few nations in the world so rich as the Portuguese in India; but their vanity is the cause of their

ruin.' In 1675, Dr. Fryer described Goa as 'Rome in India'—'looks well at a distance—stands upon seven hills; everywhere colleges, churches, and glorious structures; but many houses disgracing it with their ruins.'

The Portuguese, indeed, were becoming unable to hold their capital even against the native banditti. In 1683 it narrowly escaped falling into the hands of Sambájí at the head of his roving Maráthás, who plundered up to the very gates of the city. All hopes of resistance were abandoned, when a powerful Mughal force suddenly made its appearance from the Gháts, and compelled the Maráthás to come to terms. This unexpected deliverance was ascribed to the miraculous interposition of St. Francis Xavier. Subsequently the Bhonslás from the State of Sáwantwádi invaded the Goa territory; but though at the outset they obtained partial successes, they were eventually defeated by the Portuguese, who conquered from them the islands of Corjuem and Panelem, and destroyed their fortress at Bicholim. To defend the place against future inroads, the Viceroy, Vasco Fernandes Cæsar de Minezes (1712–1717), built a fortress on the frontiers of Bárdez, and another at Chápora. During the administration of the Count of Sandomil (1732–41), the Portuguese became once more involved in a war with the Maráthás, and lost some of their most important possessions towards the north of Goa. In 1741 the Maráthás invaded the peninsulas of Bárdez and Salsette, and threatened the city of Goa itself. At the same time the Bhonslás availed themselves of the opportunity to overrun the settlement. At that critical period a new Viceroy arrived at Goa, the Marquis of Louriçal, bringing with him from Europe a reinforcement of 12,000 men. With this army he encountered and defeated the Maráthás at Bárdez with great slaughter, captured the celebrated fortress of Ponda and other minor forts, and compelled them to retire from Goa. He then marched against the Bhonslás, and forced them to sue for peace, making their chief, Khem Sáwant, a tributary of the Portuguese. Shortly afterwards, however, the Bhonslás renewed hostilities, but were defeated by the Marquis of Castello-Novo, who conquered Alorna (whence his later title), Tiracol, Neutim, Rarim, Sanquelim, or Satári.

In 1750 the Maráthás and Bhonslás jointly attacked the fortress of Neutim, which they closely invested both by sea and land. The Viceroy, the Marquis of Tavora, hastened to the relief of the place with all his available forces, and compelled the enemy to raise the siege, after which he turned his arms against the King of Sunda, and captured the fortress of Piro (Sadáshivgarh). His successor, Count of Alva, prosecuted successfully for a time the war against the Maráthás, but eventually lost Rarim and Neutim, and was killed at the siege of one of the fortresses which had fallen into the hands of the

enemy. About this period, the Court of Lisbon sent peremptory orders to the Viceroy, Count of Ega, to restore the fortresses of Piro and Ximpem to the King of Sunda, and Bicholim, Sanquelim, and Alorna to Khem Sáwant II. Subsequently, however, the former allowed the Portuguese to possess themselves of Ponda, with the adjacent territory of Zambaulim, Cabo de Ráma, and Canacona, during the time that his dominions were invaded by Haidar Alí. After some years of repose, Khem Sáwant again attempted to disturb the Portuguese; but being defeated, had to surrender to them Bicholim, Sanquelim or Satári, Alorna, and Pernem.

The decay of the capital had become so notorious that the Portuguese Government in Europe determined to rebuild it at a great cost. After a century of fruitless efforts and foolish expenditure, Old Goa still lay in ruins, and the remnants of the population drew themselves together at Panjim or New Goa, at the mouth of the river. The changes in the river itself had contributed to render Old Goa still more unhealthy than of old, and to make the navigation of its channels dangerous even for the comparatively small class of ships which the Portuguese employed. During the 18th century, the decayed settlement, instead of being a centre of military pomp and courtly display, had become a burden on the Home Government, and cost Portugal a considerable sum of money annually. It required a force of 2000 European soldiers to protect it from the Maráthás; the privates receiving a miserable subsistence of rice and fish, and the captains drawing a salary of 6 rupees (12 shillings) a month. Such commerce as survived was in the hands of the Jesuits. This fraternity still preserved the traditions, and something of the energy, of the proselytizing era. Captain Hamilton, early in the 18th century, declared that he counted from a neighbouring hill nearly eighty churches and convents. He states the number of Roman Catholic priests at 30,000 for the city and settlement. The native merchants had been driven away by oppressions and insults; and during the first half of the last century, the Jesuits monopolized the remnants of the trade, which still clung to the capital. In 1739, when the territory was overrun by the Maráthás, the nuns and monks had streamed forth in panic to the refuge of Murmagao. Nevertheless, high offices and military commands were still lavished among the poverty-stricken remnants of the Portuguese in India. All the talk at Goa was about fine titles. 'A post which would be filled by a small tradesman everywhere else, needed a general.'

From 1794 to 1815, the Government of Goa and other Portuguese Settlements in India received little attention from the Court of Lisbon, owing to various causes, the chief of which was the invasion of the Iberian Peninsula by the French. To protect Goa against any contingency, an English auxiliary force was obtained to garrison the two

fortresses commanding the port, until the general peace in Europe after the battle of Waterloo. In 1817, the Viceroy, the Count of Rio Pardo, repelled the inroads of the predatory forces from the Sáwantwádi State, capturing the fortress of Uspa and Rarim. This Governor was, however, deposed in consequence of a revolution which took place in Goa in 1821. In 1835, a native of the place, named Bernardo Peres da Silva, was appointed Governor and Prefect of the Portuguese State of India by Dona Maria II., in reward for his adherence to the House of Braganza during the usurpation of Dom Miguel. But his reforms in Goa during the 17 days of his government ended in an *émeute* and his flight to Bombay.

For about sixteen years after this event, Goa was undisturbed either by external foes or internal dissensions, except a brief military revolt, which resulted in the deposition of the Governor, Lopez de Lima. During the administration of Pestana, in 1845, the disturbances at Sáwantwádi, and the shelter afforded at Goa to the rioters who had fled thither, threatened for a time to bring about a rupture with the British Government of Bombay. In 1852, the Ránís of Satári, headed by Dipáji, revolted. In 1871, a rebellion broke out among the native army at Goa, in consequence of the Portuguese authorities making a stand against its exorbitant demands. To suppress this insurrection, the Court of Lisbon despatched a reinforcement, accompanied by the king's own brother, Dom Augusto. On the restoration of peace, the native regiments that had revolted were disbanded, and the colony is now held by 313 Portuguese soldiers. The former army has not been reorganized, as native regiments could only be dangerous to the handful of European troops; and the peace maintained throughout India by the British supremacy renders them unnecessary for any practical purposes.

The chief towns in the territory of Goa are—NOVA GOA or PANJIM, with 1185 houses, and a population of 8440 souls; Margao, 2522 houses, population 11,794; and Mapuça, 2285 houses, population 10,286.

Goa City.—The capital of the Portuguese territory of the same name; situated near the mouth of the river Mandávi, in 15° 30′ N. lat., and 73° 57′ E. long. Population of Old Goa (1881), 1882, dwelling in 469 houses.

Goa is properly the name of three cities, which represent three successive stages in the history of Western India. The earliest of the three was an ancient Hindu city, before the invasion of the Muhammadans; the second, known as Old Goa, was the first capital of the Portuguese, and is still the ecclesiastical metropolis of Roman Catholic India; the third, commonly called Panjim, is the present seat of Portuguese administration. The original city of Goa (Goa

Velha), built by the Kadambás, was situated on the banks of the river Juary. No traces of buildings exist at this day. The next town of Goa (Velha Cidade de Goa), generally known to foreigners as Old Goa, situated about 5 miles to the north of the Hindu capital, was built by the Muhammadans in 1479, nineteen years before the arrival of Vasco da Gama in India. This famous city, conquered by Albuquerque in 1510, became the capital of the Portuguese Empire in Asia; as such it was once the chief emporium of commerce between the East and West, and enjoyed the same privileges as Lisbon. It reached the climax of its splendour during the 16th century; but with the decline of the Portuguese power in the following century, it began gradually to lose its significance in every respect, save as an ecclesiastical metropolis.

The frequent plagues by which the population was repeatedly thinned, together with the removal of the seat of Government to Panjim, and the suppression of the religious orders, contributed finally to effect its complete downfall. Instead of the 200,000 inhabitants which once formed its population, hardly 2000 poverty-stricken creatures remain to haunt the few ecclesiastical edifices still standing. Foremost among the surviving edifices is the Cathedral dedicated to St. Catherine by Albuquerque, in commemoration of his entry into Goa on the day of her festival. Built as a parochial church in 1512, it was reconstructed in 1623 in its present majestic proportions, having been about a century before elevated to the rank of a primatial see, which it has ever since retained. Service is regularly held every day by the Canons attached to the Cathedral. The Convent of St. Francis, originally a Muhammadan mosque, converted into a church by the Portuguese, was the first structure consecrated to Catholic worship in Goa. Its chief portal, curious as being the earliest of its kind in Portuguese India, has been preserved intact to this day, though the convent itself was rebuilt in 1661. The Chapel of St. Catherine was erected in 1551, on the site of the gate of the Muhammadan city through which Albuquerque entered. The Church of Bom Jesus, commenced in 1594, and consecrated in 1603, is a splendid edifice, enjoying a wide renown for the magnificent tomb holding the remains of the apostle of the Indies, St. Francis Xavier, the events of whose life are represented around the shrine. The Convent of St. Monica, commenced in 1606, and completed in 1627, was constructed for a community of nuns, now represented by a single venerable member. The Convent of St. Cajetan, erected in the middle of the 17th century by the order of the Theatines, is noted for its resemblance to St. Peter's at Rome, and is in excellent preservation.

Of the other historical edifices with which Old Goa was formerly embellished, but few traces remain to give a conception of

their pristine beauty and magnificence. The once renowned palace of the Viceroys, the spacious custom-house, and many other public buildings, have been completely destroyed. The College of St. Roque, belonging to the order of Jesus, the Senate-house, the once famous Palace of the Inquisition, the Church of the Miraculous Cross, the College of St. Paul, the Hospital of St. Lazarus, the Church and Convent of St. Augustine, as well as the college of the same name close by, are all in ruins. The arsenal, the chapel of the Cinco Chagas (the Five Wounds), and the ecclesiastical jail, still remain standing in a dilapidated condition, but every year their walls yield to the crumbling finger of decay. The sites of the vanished buildings have been converted into cocoa-nut plantations, the ruins are covered with shrubs and moss, and the streets are overrun with grass. But though Old Goa has long since lost its civil importance, forming at present only a suburb of Panjim, its ecclesiastical influence as the See of the Primate of the East still remains; and, as long as it can boast of its noble monuments of Christian piety, and retains the shrine of the great Eastern evangelist, it will not cease to attract pilgrims from the most distant parts of the Catholic world.

The history of Goa has been very fully given in the preceding article. As far back as 1759, the ruin of the old city was complete. The governor changed his residence to Panjim, near the mouth of the river, and in the same year the Jesuits were expelled. With them went the last sparks of commercial enterprise. In 1775, the population, which at the beginning of the century had numbered nearly 30,000, was reduced to 1600, of whom 1198 were Christians. Goa remains in ruins to this day. Every effort to re-people it has failed, and Old Goa is now a city of fallen houses and of streets overgrown with jungle. Almost the only buildings which survive are the convents and churches, with miserable huts attached. In 1827, the Superior of the Augustinian Convent thus wrote: 'Il ne reste plus de cette ville que le sacre: le profane en est entièrement banni.' The stately mansions and magnificent public buildings of Old Goa are now heaps of bricks covered with rank grass, and buried in groves of cocoa-nut trees. 'The river,' wrote Dr. Russell in 1877, 'washes the remains of a great city,—an arsenal in ruins; palaces in ruins; quay walls in ruins; churches in ruins; all in ruins. We looked and saw the site of the Inquisition, the bishop's prison, a grand cathedral, great churches, chapels, convents, religious houses, on knolls surrounded by jungle. We saw the crumbling masonry which once marked the lines of streets and enclosures of palaces, dockyards filled with weeds and obsolete cranes.'

Nova Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjim, Ribandar, as well as the old city of Goa, and is 6 miles in extent. It is situated on the left bank of the river Mandávi, at a distance of

about 3 miles from its mouth. The suburb of Ribandar is connected with the central quarter of Panjim by a causeway about 300 yards long, through which lies the main road leading to Old Goa. Panjim occupies a narrow strip, enclosed by the causeway on the east, the village of St. Ignez on the west, the river on the north, and a hill which walls it on the south. In the last century it was a miserable village, inhabited by a few fishermen dwelling in *cadjan* huts, and remarkable only for the fortress built by Yúsaf Adil Sháh, which is now transformed into a viceregal palace. As in the case of Bombay city, the surface has been gradually formed by filling up hollows and reclaiming large tracts of marshy land. The present (1881) population, exclusive of Goa Velha, or Old Goa, is returned at 8440 persons, dwelling in 1185 houses.

Panjim was selected as the residence of the Portuguese Viceroy in 1759; and in 1843 it was formally raised by royal decree to rank as the capital of Portuguese India. From the river, the appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, is very picturesque; and this first impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads bordered by decent houses. Of public structures, the most imposing are the barracks, an immense quadrangular edifice, the eastern wing of which accommodates the College or Lyceum, the Public Library, and the Professional Institute for teaching chemistry, agriculture, and other sciences. The square facing this wing is adorned by a life-size statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy. The other buildings include the cathedral, the viceregal palace, the high court, the custom-house, the municipal chamber, the military hospital, the jail, the accountant-general's office, and the post-office. For trade, etc., see pp. 94, 95.

Goálánda.—Sub-division of Farídpur District, Bengal; extending from 23° 31′ to 23° 55′ N. lat., and from 89° 22′ to 89° 54′ E. long. Area, 428 square miles; number of villages or townships, 1223; number of occupied houses, 47,287. Population (1881) 321,485, namely, males 163,433, and females 158,052. Hindus, 123,262; Muhammadans, 198,073; Christians, 137; and Buddhists, 13. Number of persons per square mile, 751·13; villages per square mile, 2·86; persons per village, 263; houses per square mile, 114; persons per house, 6·8. Goálánda Sub-division includes the three *thánás* or police circles of Goálánda, Balyakándi, and Pángsá. It contained in 1883, 2 civil and 2 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 71 officers and men, and a rural constabulary or village watch numbering 584.

Goálánda. — River mart and municipality in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated in 23° 50′ 10″ N. lat., and 89° 46′ 10″ E. long., at the confluence of the main streams of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. Fifteen years ago but a small fishing village, with an evil reputation for river *dakáiti*, Goálánda has now become one of the most important

centres of trade in Bengal, and has taken the place of Kushtiá as the terminus of the Eastern Bengal Railway and the point of departure of the Assam steamers. The population of the town, which in 1872 was estimated at about 1000, had at the time of the Census of 1881 increased to 8652, namely 4508 Hindus, 4130 Muhammadans, and 14 'others.' Area of town site, 2364 acres. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £350, or at the rate of 9⅝d. per head of population.

The modern career of Goálánda has not been without vicissitudes; and it is possible that the irresistible waywardness of the rivers, which have brought to it its prosperity, may again in a few years divert commerce to another direction. The town, which consists of little more than a railway station, a *bázár*, and a court-house, stands upon an alluvial tongue of land lying at the junction of two great river systems. During the cold weather, a temporary line of rail is laid down to the river bank, and the process of transhipping goods from steamer or boat to railway truck is conducted safely on the water's edge. But when the two rivers rise in flood about July, the operations of commerce are driven back inland. The river bank over which trains were running a few weeks before, becomes a boiling sea of waters, where even the steamers find a difficulty in making headway. At this season, the eye may look north or east over 3 or 4 miles of uninterrupted water. When a storm comes on, the native craft flee for shelter to various creeks. The railway extension from Kushtiá to Goálánda was first opened in 1870; and up to 1875 the station stood upon an artificial embankment near the water's edge, protected by a masonry spur running out into the river. From first to last, about £130,000 was spent upon these protective works, and it was hoped that engineering skill had conquered the violence of the Gangetic flood. But in August 1875 the river rose to an unprecedented height. The solid masonry spur, the railway station, and sub-divisional offices were all swept away; and at the present time there is deep water over their site. A new terminus, which it was hoped would prove permanent, was afterwards erected about two miles from the river bank, but this was also soon afterwards washed away. The site of the terminus has frequently been changed owing to the shiftings of the river channel, and none but temporary buildings are now erected.

The trade of Goálánda consists almost entirely in the transhipment of goods from river to rail. In addition to a large through traffic conducted direct with Assam, the agricultural produce of the surrounding Districts is here collected for despatch to Calcutta. In the year 1882, the value of the total trade, including both exports and imports, was returned at £788,981. The principal item is jute, of which 2,184,393 *maunds* were received during the year, valued at £436,878. The aggregate amount of oil-seeds (chiefly mustard) was 87,614 *maunds*,

valued at £30,488; of food-grains (chiefly rice), 478,400 *maunds*, valued at £99,578; of tobacco, 4578 *maunds*, valued at £2299. The most important articles obtained in exchange from Calcutta are European piece-goods and salt. In 1882, the imports of cotton goods were valued at £7700, entirely by rail; the importation of salt was 100,014 *maunds*, valued at £35,005. The steamers of three companies touch at Goálánda, running to Assam, Sirájganj, Dacca, and Cachar; but the greater portion of the trade is still carried in country boats, of which it is estimated that 100,000 passed Goálánda in 1882. This number does not include the fleets of fishing boats, which add so much to the liveliness of the scene. A good deal of *hilsa* fish is exported to Calcutta, but not to such an extent as formerly, the fisheries being less productive. Only a small quantity is cured, the drawback duty of Rs. 2. 12. 0 a *maund* on salt formerly allowed by Government being now discontinued. The merchants of Goálánda are chiefly Márwárís, locally called Káyas. There are also many Bengálí and Musalmán traders. The *bázár* is held daily, and is largely frequented both by wholesale dealers and petty shopkeepers.

Goálpárá.—The most westerly District of the Province of Assam, forming the entrance to the upper valley of the Brahmaputra. It lies on both sides of the great river, extending from 25° 45′ to 26° 54′ N. lat., and from 89° 44′ to 92° 14′ E. long. It is bounded north by the mountains of Bhután, and south by the newly-formed District of the Gáro Hills. It contains an area of 3897 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1881, numbers 446,232 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at DHUBRI TOWN, situated on the right or north bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The permanently-settled portion of the District (as distinguished from the Eastern Dwárs portion, which is under the regular Assam land system of yearly settlements) occupies the narrow valley of the Brahmaputra, at the corner where the great river leaves Assam proper and turns due south to enter the wide plain of Bengal. It is very irregularly shaped, extending for only 65 miles along the northern bank of the Brahmaputra, and for 120 miles along its southern bank. The level land on the south bank forms but a narrow strip, in some parts not more than 8 miles across, being shut in by the ridges of the Gáro Hills. On the north, the cultivated plain gradually merges in the low jungle of the Eastern Dwárs. The scenery throughout is of a striking character. Along the channel of the river grow dense clumps of cane and reed. Farther back, the wide expanses of rice cultivation are only broken by the fruit-trees surrounding the village sites. In the background rise forest-clad hills, crowned in the far distance by the snow-capped peaks of the Himálayas. The soil of the hills and of the higher ground consists of a red ochreous earth, interspersed with large

blocks of granite and sandstone. The latter are subject to disintegration from exposure to the weather. In the plains, the soil is of alluvial formation, being either tenacious clay or clay more or less mixed with sand. Earthquakes are common in Goálpárá, and very severe shocks have occasionally been experienced.

Besides the Brahmaputra, the three following tributaries of the great river on its northern bank are navigable for boats of considerable size throughout the year:—The Manás, Gadádhar, and Gangádhar or Sankos. These all rise in the Bhután Hills, and flow through the Eastern Dwárs into Goálpárá. Several other minor streams become navigable during the rainy season. Alluvion and diluvion are continually taking place in the course of the Brahmaputra, as testified by the numerous islands and sandbanks that dot its broad channel. This river, also, annually inundates a large tract of country on both its banks; and the flood-water stands all the year long in the wide *bíls* or marshes, some of which cover an area of from 6 to 12 square miles. In the Eastern Dwárs, the Government reserved forests form an important department of the administration, covering an area of 447 square miles. There are also valuable forests in private hands, estimated to yield about £3000 a year to their proprietors. The financial results of the working of the Goálpárá forests in 1880–81 showed a surplus of £1233 of receipts over expenditure. Wild animals of all kinds abound in Goálpárá, including tigers, rhinoceros, and buffaloes. It is on record that, about twenty-five years ago, more money was annually expended in rewards for the killing of wild animals than was realized from the land revenue. Even in the three years ending 1870, the average number of deaths from wild beasts and snake-bite averaged 116 annually. No coal or other minerals have been found in Goálpárá, but the hills abound with large stones which might be utilized for building purposes.

History.—Goálpárá has always formed the frontier between Bengal and Assam, and has participated to the full in the vicissitudes attending such a position. In the earliest times it must have constituted part of the legendary Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, which is said to have extended from the head of the Assam valley far across the plains of Bengal to what are now the borders of Purniah District. The only remains of this period may perhaps be found in the ruined temple of Thákeswari. The next dynasty which can be localized in this region is that of the early Koch Rájás of Kuch Behar, whose empire was almost as extensive as that of the fabled Kámrúp. But it fell to pieces by subdivision in the generation after it was founded; and the present Rájá of Bijni, who owns a large *zamíndárí* in the settled portion of the District, claims to be descended from a younger son of a Kuch Behar king, and to hold his lands as a royal appanage. About 1600 A.D., two armies of invaders were closing upon Goálpárá from different

directions, and the divided kingdom could offer no resistance. From the east, the wild Ahams gradually spread down the valley of the Brahmaputra, to which they subsequently gave their own name of Assam; while, from the west, the Mughals pushed forward the limits of the Delhi empire and of the faith of Islám. The Muhammadans first appeared on the scene; and thus Goálpárá was definitively assimilated to Eastern Bengal in administration and ethnical characteristics. It was in the year 1603, twenty-seven years after Bengal had been wrested from the Afgháns by Akbar's generals, that the Mughals first reached the Brahmaputra, and annexed the Assam valley as far as the present District of Darrang. But here they soon came into collision with the Ahams. After a decisive defeat in the neighbourhood of Gauháti, in 1662, Mír Jumlá, the well-known general of Aurangzeb, was obliged to retreat; and the Muhammadan frontier was permanently fixed at the town of Goálpárá. At this place and at Rángámátí, on the opposite bank of the Brahmaputra, military officers were stationed, among whose duties it was to encourage the growth of jungle and reeds, to serve as a natural protection against the inroads of the dreaded Ahams. About this time, also, the Eastern Dwárs fell into dependence upon Bhután.

This was the position of affairs when the British obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765. The comparatively small extent to which the Mughals here assimilated their conquest may be judged from the fact that the Musalmán element in the population of the District now amounts to 22 per cent., as against 51 per cent. in the neighbouring jurisdiction of Rangpur. Another significant feature in the Mughal administration of Goálpárá was the lightness of the revenue assessment. The land was left in the hands of border chieftains, whose residence in some cases lay beyond the recognised frontier, and who paid a merely nominal tribute. This system was stereotyped in the Permanent Settlement of 1793, by which the land revenue of the District was fixed in perpetuity at the trifling total of £1170. At the present day, Goálpárá is the paradise of great landlords. There are altogether only 19 estates in the permanently-settled tract; and it is estimated that the average rentals exceed the amount paid to Government by fifty-fold. The average rate of assessment throughout the settled portion of Goálpárá is less than 1d. per head of population, as compared with 1s. 5d. in Assam generally, and 1s. 2d. in Bengal.

During the early years of British administration, Goálpárá was administered as an integral portion of Rangpur District; but in 1822 it was formed into an independent jurisdiction under a Commissioner. This step was taken with a view to establishing a special system of government over the Gáros and other wild tribes on the frontier. It was also thought desirable to place a European officer at Goálpárá

town, which was then the outpost station towards the disturbed frontier of Assam. This town had long occupied a peculiar position of commercial and political importance. So far back as 1788, a European merchant, Mr. Raush, who settled there, is stated to have despatched at his own charges an armed force of 700 men to assist the Assam Rájá in quelling an insurrection of the Moámáriás; and as the opposite bank of the Brahmaputra lay within Assamese territory, Goálpárá had become a sort of free port for river traffic. After the conquest of Assam by the British in 1825, Goálpárá District was immediately annexed to the new Province, though for revenue purposes the administration has always continued to be conducted in accordance with the Bengal Regulations. The Bhután war of 1864 brought about another change. The Dwárs ceded by the Bhutiás were attached partly to the newly-formed District of Jalpáigurí and partly to Goálpárá; and the whole tract, together with the State of Kuch Behar, was erected into the Kuch Behar Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. But this severance was not of long duration. In 1868, the civil and criminal jurisdiction of Goálpárá was again transferred to the Judicial Commissioner of Assam; and in 1874, when Assam was constituted a Province independent of Bengal, the entire administration in all departments was included in the new Province. The Deputy Commissioner, as the chief European officer is now styled, exercises the powers possessed in Bengal by a Magistrate and Collector, and also those of a subordinate judge; while the functions of a civil and sessions judge rest with the Judge of the Assam Valley.

People. — Goálpárá, as forming part of the Bengal District of Rangpur, was included in the statistical survey conducted by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton in the beginning of the present century. He estimated the total number of inhabitants at 176,000, within an area of 2915 square miles. There can be no doubt that the population has largely increased since that date. The regular Census of 1872, which was confined to the permanently-settled tract of 2571 square miles, disclosed a total population of 407,714 persons, dwelling in 1330 *mauzás* or villages, and in 65,767 houses. The last Census in 1881, taken over the entire District, including the Eastern Dwárs, returned a population of 446,232 on an area of 3897 square miles, residing in 1225 villages and 87,362 inhabited houses; average density of population, 114·5 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·31; inhabitants per village, 364; inmates per house, 5·11. Divided according to sex, the males numbered 229,149, and the females 217,083. Classified according to religion, persons professing Hinduism were returned at 329,066; Muhammadans, 104,777; Sikhs, 14; Christians, 513; Buddhists, 79; Jains, 39; Bráhmos, 32; and aboriginal hill tribes, 11,712.

Generally speaking, Goálpárá presents the ethnical aspects of a

frontier District, in which the hill tribes have been imperfectly assimilated by the Hindus. The aborigines of the Census Report are chiefly represented by the three kindred tribes of Rábhá, Mech, and Káchárí or Cachari, who are now returned as Hindus in religion. Next come the Gáros, numbering 11,710, who are immigrants from the neighbouring hills on the south, and are fully described in the article on the GARO HILLS DISTRICT. The great majority still hold their primitive aboriginal faiths, although an American Baptist Mission for Gáros has been established in the south of the District. The great bulk of the semi-Hinduized aborigines consists of the Kochs, who are properly an aboriginal tribe, akin to the Káchárís and Mechs; but since the high position attained by the conquering Rájás of Kuch Behar, their tribesmen have been admitted within the pale of Hinduism under the high-sounding title of Rájbansi. The term 'Koch,' also, is vaguely used at the present time as applicable to all new converts made by the Bráhmans; and members of every rank in society may be found included in this caste. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 2970, and chiefly belong to the Vaidik sept, who are said to have migrated from Hindustán at a remote period; the Rájputs number only 57; the Káyasths, 1733. By far the most numerous caste is the Jaliyá (19,230), whose occupation is that of fishermen, and who are supposed to be connected with the well-known Kaibarttas of Bengal. Next in number come the Kolitás (11,299), a caste peculiar to Assam, who exercised priestly functions under the native dynasty before the advent of the Bráhmans. They now rank as pure Sudras, and are chiefly employed in agriculture. They are found in greater numbers in the Districts of Upper Assam.

A branch of the Bráhma Samáj was established by Bengali immigrants in 1868, but theistic principles have not made progress among the natives of the District. Mention is made of a peculiar sect called Mahápurúshiyá Bhakat, whose members meet at night to eat flesh and drink wine. The Jains are represented by a few Márwárí traders from the north-west, settled at Goálpárá town. Of the Musalmán population, a few of those residing in the towns have adopted the Faráizi or reforming creed, while many in the interior are described as scarcely differing from their Hindu neighbours in their rites and image-worship. The native Christians are mainly Gáros, dwelling on the southern boundary of the District, under the charge of the American Baptist Mission.

The population of Goálpárá is entirely rural. There is only one place with more than 5000 inhabitants, GOALPARA TOWN, containing in 1881, 6697 inhabitants, which is the chief centre of trade. DHUBRI is the present head-quarters of the District; and as the terminus in this direction of the Northern Bengal State Railway, is the principal point

where passengers for Assam are taken on board the Brahmaputra river steamers. Gauripur, Bagribari, and Lakhipur possess a thriving trade in timber, and are the residences of wealthy *zamíndárs*.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop of the District is rice, which is not, however, cultivated so exclusively as in Upper Assam. The principal harvest is the *haimantik*, *sálí*, or *áman* rice, sown on low lands about June, transplanted a month later, and reaped in mid-winter. Next in importance is the *áus* rice, sown about March on comparatively high lands, from which a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds can be taken later in the year, and reaped about July. *Báo* or long-stemmed rice is cultivated in marshes, being sown in March and reaped in October. Neither of these last two varieties is transplanted. Mustard is largely grown as an oil-seed on the *chars* and alluvial accretions in the bed of the Brahmaputra. The acreage under jute has rapidly increased in recent years, and this fibre, with oil-seeds, now furnishes the staple export from the District. The less important crops include many varieties of pulses and vegetables, wheat, sugar-cane, and *pán* or betel-leaf. The estimated area under the different crops in 1880-81 is returned as follows. Rainy season crops—Rice, 361,312 acres; other food-grains, 2143; jute, 74,425; cotton, 19,895; sugar-cane, 1742; tea, 342; and indigo, 500 acres. Dry season crops—Wheat, 9765; other food-grains, 38,620; and oil-seeds, 61,198. Total cultivated area, 569,942 acres.

Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used on *áus* or high lands, especially for the sugar-cane crop. Irrigation is only practised in the neighbourhood of the northern hills, where the villagers combine to divert the hill streams over their fields by means of artificial channels. Land is nowhere suffered to lie fallow all the year through; but, for the most part, only one crop in the year is taken off the same field. A fair out-turn from an acre of *sálí* land would be 18½ cwts. of unhusked paddy, worth about £3; from an acre of *áus* land, 15 cwts. of paddy, worth about £2, 8s. Under favourable circumstances, a second crop from either description of land might raise the total value of the annual out-turn to nearly £4. As Goálpárá (excepting the Eastern Dwárs tract) is a permanently-settled District in accordance with the Regulations prevalent in Bengal, the rates of rent are not fixed by Government as in Assam proper, but vary on the estates of the several *zamíndárs*. According to official returns furnished in 1870, the rent paid for *basti* or homestead land varies, in the different *parganás*, from 3s. to 14s. an acre; for *sálí* land, from 2s. 7d. to 6s. 3d.; and for *áus* land, from 1s. to 5s. The forms of land tenure resemble those in the neighbouring Districts of Bengal. Various classes of under-tenants intervene between the *zamíndár* and the actual cultivator of the soil; and in many cases the cultivator has no recognised interest in the

land, but is merely a labourer paid by a certain proportion of the produce. The most numerous class of under-tenants with permanent rights are those styled *jotdárs* : while *prajá*, *ádhiár*, and *chukánidár* are the common names for subordinate cultivators, the amount of whose service or remuneration varies in each case. Rights of occupancy are almost unknown.

Rates of wages have approximately doubled within the past twenty-five years. Ordinary labourers, when paid in cash, now receive from 14s. to 18s. a month ; skilled artisans can earn as much as £2. The price of food-grains has also risen greatly. In 1882–83, common rice sold at 4s. 9d. per cwt.

The District is not specially liable to any form of natural calamity. Blights, caused by worms and insects, have been known to occur ; and in 1863 the country was visited by swarms of locusts. These visitations, however, have never been on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. Similarly, Goálpárá is exposed to river floods, especially in the upper part of the District, where there is great need of protective embankments ; but no inundation has ever produced a scarcity. Partial droughts are caused by deficiency of the local rainfall ; but in such cases the sterility of the higher levels would be compensated by the increased area of marshy land brought into cultivation. If the price of common rice were to rise in January to 14s. a cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress later in the year.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Goálpárá consist of the making of brass and iron utensils, gold and silver ornaments, the weaving of silk cloth, basket work, and pottery. It is said that in recent years the competition of the cheaper Bengal articles has seriously injured the local industries, which used to be of a highly artistic character and of honest workmanship. A speciality still remaining is the *thagí* or *sarái*, a silver tray occasionally inlaid with gold. Silk cloth is woven from the cocoons of the *eriá* and *mugá* worms. The former, which is the more domesticated variety of the two, is fed on the leaves of the castor-oil plant ; the latter on the *saola* or *súm* tree. The silk of Goálpárá is regarded as inferior in texture, but superior in durability, to that of Upper Assam. The cultivation and manufacture of tea has been introduced only recently into Goálpárá. In 1880 there were 342 acres under cultivation (including newly-opened gardens), with an estimated out-turn of 41,305 lbs., the average yield being 160 lbs. per acre of mature plant. None of the labourers employed were imported under contract from Bengal, although all the immigration traffic passes by way of Dhubrí town.

The external commerce of the District is entirely conducted by means of the Brahmaputra, the chief centres of traffic being Goálpárá

town, Dhubrí, Jogighopá, and Singimári. The local trade is principally in the hands of Márwárí merchants from Rájputána. It is carried on at permanent *bázárs*, weekly *háts* or markets, and periodical fairs held on the occasion of religious festivals. The chief exports from the District are mustard-seed and jute from the plains, and cotton, timber, and lac from the hills; there is also some export of silk cloth, india-rubber, and tea. The commodities received in exchange comprise rice, European piece-goods, salt and hardware, oil and tobacco.

The chief means of communication are the rivers, especially the Brahmaputra, which is navigated by steamers and the largest native boats all the year through. The Assam Trunk Road, running south of the Brahmaputra from a point opposite Dhubrí to the Kámrúp border, is the mail route, and much travelled by foot passengers. The roads in the District are in fair order, and are now all in charge of District Committees, constituted under the Assam Local Rates Regulation of 1879. Dhubrí, as already mentioned, is the terminus of the Northern Bengal State Railway, a daily communication being kept up with Kaunia on the Tístá by a service of small steamers, together with a tramway service between the Tístá and Dharla, and between the Dharla and the Brahmaputra. Communication within the District is composed of 500 miles of navigable rivers, 265 miles of first-class roads, 143 miles of second-class roads, and 76 miles of third-class roads.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Goálpárá District (including the Eastern Dwárs) amounted to £18,309, towards which the land-tax contributed £4235, and the excise £6225; the expenditure was £20,266, or nearly £2000 more than the revenue. The balance in the treasury is adjusted by the receipt of £6770 from Kuch Behar, being the tribute of that State, which is still paid at Goálpárá. The total of the land revenue is extremely small, but it has increased somewhat since the annexation of the Eastern Dwárs. By 1874–75 it had risen to £6229, of which only £1170 was obtained from the permanently-settled portion of the District. In 1880–81, while the total land revenue had risen to £9391, that derived from the permanently-settled estates had slightly fallen to £1141. It is curious to observe that, in the matter of excise, Goálpárá clearly manifests its character of a border region. Under this item, the incidence of taxation is 3½d. per head of population, against 8½d. in Assam generally, and 2d. for the whole of Bengal. In 1880 there was 1 European officer stationed in the District, and 7 magisterial and civil and revenue courts were open. For police purposes, Goálpárá is divided into 4 *thánás* or police circles, with 15 outpost stations. In 1880 the regular police force consisted of 322 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6062. There is a small municipal police

force of 6 men, and a *chaukídárí* or rural force of 621 men, costing £2787. There are two prisons in the District, one at Dhubrí, with a daily average population in 1880 of 25·30; and one at Goálpárá, with a daily average of 17·89 inmates in the same year.

Education had not made much progress in Goálpárá until within late years. In 1856 there were only 15 schools in the District, attended by 194 pupils. By 1870, after a temporary decline, these numbers had increased to 31 schools and 862 pupils. The reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*, raised the total number of inspected schools in 1873 to 92, and of pupils to 2137; while by 1880 the schools had further increased to 96, and the pupils to 2355. The chief educational establishment is the Higher-Class English School at Dhubrí. This school was formerly situated in Goálpárá town, but it fell into a declining state on the removal of the head-quarters station, and the number of pupils steadily decreased. Since the removal of the school to Dhubrí, the attendance increased, and in March 1881 the school was better attended than for the five previous years. The American Baptist Mission is assisted by Government in maintaining a normal school and 9 *páthsálás* among the Gáros, who live on the southern boundary of the District.

For administrative purposes, Goálpára is divided into 2 Sub-divisions, including the Eastern Dwárs, and into 4 *thánás* or police circles, with 15 outpost stations. In the permanently-settled tract there are 17 *parganás* or fiscal divisions, with an aggregate of 19 estates, of which only 7 date from a period subsequent to the Permanent Settlement. The temporarily settled estates in the Eastern Dwárs, the engagements for which are made yearly with the actual cultivators, numbered in 1880–81 no less than 14,606. Goálpárá town was constituted a municipality in 1875, under Act vi. of 1868. The average municipal income is about £400, of which the greater part is expended on sanitation.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season or monsoon lasts for five months, from the middle of May to the middle of October. It is succeeded by the cold weather, which is marked by heavy fogs during the early morning. The prevailing winds are easterly; but during the three months from March to May, hot winds occasionally blow from the west, and thunderstorms come up from the south-west. The mean annual temperature is returned at 75° F. In 1880, the maximum recorded was 92·9° in the month of July; and the minimum, 49·3°, in December. The average annual rainfall at Goálpárá town for the five years ending 1880–81 is 100·46, and at Dhubrí, 97·54 inches. The rainfall in the latter year, however, was only 72·66 inches at Goálpárá, and 62·66 inches at Dhubrí.

Goálpárá District is considered very unhealthy both for Europeans and natives, especially during the rainy season. The whole country round Goálpárá town is charged with malarious exhalations. The prevalent diseases are—intermittent and remittent fevers, complicated with affections of the spleen; diarrhœa, dysentery, rheumatism, and chest affections. Epidemic outbreaks of cholera are frequent, and small-pox annually appears, owing to the popular custom of inoculation. The vital statistics for 1881 returned a registered death-rate of 13·12 per thousand, but this is admittedly below the truth. Out of a total of 5855 deaths, 4840 were assigned to fevers, 57 to cholera, 87 to small-pox, and 389 to bowel complaints. There are 4 charitable dispensaries in the District, which were attended in 1881 by 353 in-door and 5121 out-door patients; the total expenditure was £608.

Goálpárá.—Sub-division of Goálpárá District, Assam; containing a population (1881) of 164,222 persons, residing in 563 villages or towns, and 36,092 houses. Hindus numbered 137,903; Muhammadans, 15,420; and 'others,' 10,899. The Sub-division comprises the 2 police circles (*thánás*) of Goálpárá and Sálmára. It contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; a regular police force of 94 officers and men, besides 264 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Goálpárá Town.—Chief town and formerly head-quarters station of Goálpárá District, Assam; situated on the south or left bank of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 26° 11′ N., long. 90° 41′ E. Population (1881) 6697, namely, males 4330, and females 2367. Hindus numbered 4151; Muhammadans, 2373; and 'others,' 173. Municipal income in 1882–83, £253; incidence of taxation, 9d. per head of population. Goálpárá is said to derive its name from a colony of Hindu Goálás or cowherds who settled here in early times. It was the frontier outpost of the Muhammadans in the direction of Assam, and afterwards a flourishing seat of trade before the British annexed that Province. In 1788, the name of a Mr. Raush appears as a merchant settled here, who sent a force of 700 armed guards to assist the Rájá of Assam against his revolted subjects. The civil station is built on the summit of a hill, rising 260 feet above the plain, which commands a magnificent view over the valley of the Brahmaputra; bounded north by the snow-capped Himálayas, and south by the Gáro Hills. The native town is situated on the western slope of this hill, and the lower portions of its area are subject to inundations from the marshy land which stretches all around. The town is regularly laid out, but the houses are almost all made of wooden posts, mats, and thatch, so that destructive fires are of frequent occurrence. Goálpárá is still an important centre of river trade, but Dhubrí is now the depot for the timber floated down from the Eastern Dwárs. In 1876–77, the imports from Bengal included 153,400 *maunds* of rice, 97,400 *maunds* of salt, and

European piece-goods valued at £64,700. Communication is maintained with Dhubrí on the opposite bank of the Brahmaputra, about 50 miles distant, by the Assam Trunk Road, and by a steam service branch of the Northern Bengal State Railway.

Gobardángá.—Town and municipality in the north of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 52′ 40″ N., long. 88° 47′ 55″ E.; situated on the eastern bank of the Jamuná. Population (1881) 6154, namely, Hindus, 4264; and Muhammadans, 1890. Area of town site, 1920 acres. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £390; rate of taxation, 10½d. per head of population. Police force, 18 men. English school, branch dispensary. Export of jute, molasses, and sugar. Tradition points out this village as the spot where Krishna tended his flocks.

Gobardhán. — Ancient town and place of pilgrimage in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 29′ 55″ N., long. 77° 30′ 15″ E.; lies among the low rocky hills on the western frontier. Noticeable only for its antiquarian remains, which include—the sacred tank of Manasi Gangá, where the pilgrims bathe at the close of the rains; the temple of Hari Deva, erected during Akbar's reign by Rájá Bhagwán Dás of Ambar, governor of the Punjab; the two cenotaphs of Randhír Singh and Baldeva Singh, Rájás of Bhartpur, who died in 1823 and 1825; and the monument of Suraj Mall, erected by Jawahir Singh, his son, soon after his death at Delhi in 1764. The last-named memorial comprises three cenotaphs, nine kiosks, and a large garden with an artificial lake.

Gobardhángiri.—Fortified hill on the frontier between Shimoga District, Mysore State (latitude 14° 9′ N., longitude 74° 43′ E.), and the Madras District of South Kánara, commanding the old pass that leads by the famous Falls of Gersoppa. Annually traversed by 50,000 pack-bullocks. The fort is in fair repair, but abandoned.

Gobindpur. — Sub-division of Mánbhúm District, Bengal. — *See* GOVINDPUR.

Gobrá.—Solitary village in the Khulná portion of the SUNDARBANS, Bengal. Cited as a proof that this tract was once inhabited. Ruins of masonry buildings still exist; but embankments alone prevent Gobrá from being washed away by the Kabadak.

Gobrá.—Village in Ráipur *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2368, namely, Hindus, 2097; Kabírpanthís, 111; Satnámís, 146; Muhammadans, 13; and Jain, 1.

Godágarí.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle, Rájsháhí District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 28′ N., long. 88° 21′ 33″ E.; situated in the extreme west of the District, on the banks of the Ganges. An important trading village, with a considerable river traffic with the North-Western Provinces.

Godávari. — British District of the Madras Presidency. Lies between 16° 15′ and 17° 35′ N. latitude, and between 80° 55′ and 82° 38′ E. longitude. Area, 7345 square miles, inclusive of the Agency Tract, which comprises 820 square miles. Population (according to the Census of 1881) 1,791,512, including 10,899 inhabitants of the Agency Tract. Bounded on the north by the Bastár State of the Central Provinces and by Vizagapatam District; on the north-east by Vizagapatam District; on the east and south by the Bay of Bengal; on the south-west by Kistna District; and on the west by the Nizám's Dominions. In point of size Godávari District ranks tenth among the Districts of the Madras Presidency, and in point of population seventh. The plains are divided into 10 Government *táluks*, area 6635 square miles; and there are 3 *zamíndárí* divisions in the hilly portion, with an area of 710 square miles. The two *táluks* of Bhadráchalam and Rekapalle, whose area is 911 square miles, were transferred to this District from the Central Provinces in 1874. These, together with the Rampa country, are included in the Agency Tract under the Collector of Godávari. In 1881 the District contained 2249 inhabited villages, including 13 towns. Land revenue, £461,011; gross revenue, £641,744. Administrative head-quarters and chief town, COCANADA.

Physical Aspects. — The District is divided into two parts by the GODAVARI river. At Dowlaishvaram, 30 miles inland, the river separates into two main branches, enclosing the *táluk* of Amalápur, the central delta of the river. The eastern delta comprises the *táluk* of Rámáchandrapúr with the *zamíndárí* of Cocanáda; the western, the *táluks* of Narsápur, Bhímávaram, and Tanúku. These deltas are flat, in some places even marshy. They present a vast and unbroken expanse of rice cultivation, dotted by villages, and varied only by clusters of palmyra, cocoa-nut or betel-nut palms, and mango groves. North of the delta the land gradually undulates, and the horizon is broken by scattered conical hills. Farther north, the hills come closer together, and are thickly covered with jungle; but there is no real range of mountains met with till the long broken table-land of Papikonda (2709 feet) is reached. Here the Godávari river is completely shut in by hills, forming a magnificent gorge, in some places only 200 yards wide; whereas the river attains a breadth of about 3 miles at Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), 50 miles lower down. The hills in all parts of the District are covered with jungle more or less dense. They are never quite inaccessible, but the numerous blocks of gneissic rock with which they are strewn render the construction of any road through or over them almost impossible. Teak is found here and there, and some of the higher hill ranges are covered with clumps of the feathery bamboo.

The only navigable rivers of the District are the GODAVARI and the

SABARI, which joins the former at Vaddigudem in Rekapalle *táluk.* The Godávari has seven mouths, viz. the Tulyabhága, the Atreya, the Gautami, the Vruddhagautami, the Bharadwajam, the Kausika, and the Vasishta. The large town of Narsápur is situated at the mouth of one of the two main branches, the French Settlement of Yanáon at the mouth of the other. Thirty miles up the river is the famous Dowlaishvaram anicut; 4 miles farther on, the town of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Northwards still, is the picturesque island of Pátápatteshim, covered with pagodas, and a favourite resort of pilgrims; and close to it, the timber market of Polávaram. The shipbuilding trade of the District is carried on at Tallarevu, on the Coringa branch of the river. Owing to the volume of the Godávari, and the quantity of silt brought down by it, not only the islands of the river (termed *lankas*), but the sea-coast itself, are continually changing in form. Each of the seven mouths of the river is deemed holy, and the Godávari is one of the 12 rivers of India at which the feast of *Pushkaram* is celebrated. The bed of the Godávari, at the point where it enters the District, is sandy; but gradually turns into alluvial mould in its course through the delta. The only lake of importance is the Koleru, which is studded with islands and fishing villages. Sea-fishing is carried on along the coast. Building and lime stone are found in abundance in the uplands, and iron is smelted in small quantities. The forest tracts are those of Rampa, Yemágudem, Juddangi, Dutsarti, Guditeru, and Bhadráchalam. Chief jungle products—myrabolans, soap-nuts, tamarind, bamboo-rice, honey, and beeswax. The wild animals comprise the tiger, leopard, hyæna, bison, *nílgai*, *sámbhar*, wild-boar, antelope, deer, wolf, and bear. Game birds are plentiful.

History. — The present District of Godávari formed part of what is known as the Andhra division of the Drávida country; the tract to the north-west of the river having probably been part of the kingdom of Kalinga, and more or less subject to the Orissa kings; while the south-western tract belonged to the Vengi kingdom, and owed allegiance to the Ganapatis of Warangal. The District formed for centuries a battle-field, on which the Chálukyas, Narapatis, the Reddiwar chiefs, and the aboriginal hill tribes, fought with varying success, until the arrival of the Muhammadans in the beginning of the 14th century. After a struggle lasting a century and a half between the Hindu chiefs and the Musalmán invaders from the west and north, the contest ended in the subjugation by the latter of nearly the whole of this District (1471–77). Subsequently, Krishna Ráya, the King of Vijayanagar, overran the country in 1516, and for a time restored the ancient Hindu kingdom. Lesser Hindu chiefs temporarily asserted and maintained their independence; but the whole of the country

may be regarded as having passed under Muhammadan domination from the commencement of the 16th century. In 1687, the rule of the Kutab Sháhi kings was succeeded by that of the Delhi Mughals; Aurangzeb, after a long struggle, having succeeded in overthrowing the independent Bijápur and Golconda dynasties. Thenceforward the District became known as the Nawábship of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) in the *Subahat* of Golconda, under the governorship of the Nizám, Asaf Jah. From the death of Asaf Jah in 1748, commenced the struggles between the English and the French in the Deccan and Karnátic, which terminated in the final overthrow of the French power in the East. By 1753, Godávari had become a French Province, but in that year it was overrun by the Maráthás, then at the zenith of their power.

Long anterior to this, the English, French, and Dutch had placed factories within the District. The English settled at Masulipatam in 1611, the Dutch in 1660, and the French in 1679; in 1686, the Dutch seized the administration of the town. The English opened factories at Pettapalam, Virávasaram, and Madapolliem in the 17th century, at Injeram, and Bandamúrlanka early in the 18th; the Dutch held Pálakollu, Narsápur, and Cocanáda in 1650; the French occupied YANAON a century later (1750). In 1756, the French captured without resistance the English factories at Madapolliem, Bandamúrlanka, and Injeram; but Lally's ill-advised recall of Bussy to aid him in the Karnátic in 1758 soon put an end to the French domination in the Northern Circars. In the latter year, Colonel Forde's expedition (consisting of 500 Europeans, 2000 sepoys, and 100 lascars) marched into the District, and in December completely routed the French army under Bussy's successor, the Marquis de Conflans, at Condore.

The battle of Condore (Chandurti) was the most important ever fought in the District. The English forces have been enumerated: those of de Conflans were 500 Europeans, 6000 sepoys, and a great number of local troops, including 500 cavalry. The fortune of the day, at one time adverse to Colonel Forde, was turned by the precipitous pursuit of the French after the English sepoys, while the whole European battalion, hitherto concealed behind the lofty stalks of an Indian corn-field, seized the opportunity and moved out to the attack. The French were taken by surprise. Thirty pieces of ordnance were captured, and 6 French officers, with 70 men, were killed. M. de Conflans galloped to Rájámahendri (40 miles), and reached the town at midnight without having drawn rein. The battle resulted in releasing the Northern Circars from French dominion. It was followed by the capture of Narsápur and Masulipatam, which practically left the Circars (including what now forms Godávari District) in English hands, —a state of things confirmed by Imperial Sanad in 1765. Until 1823

the Company paid an annual tribute to the Nizám for the Northern Circars. In that year it was commuted for a lump payment of 11¾ *lákhs* (£117,500).

Till 1794 this new acquisition of the East India Company was administered on the old system, namely, by a Chief and Provincial Council. As that arrangement was not found satisfactory and proved unequal to the suppression of risings, such as those in Polávaram and Gútála (1785–1787), a system of Collectorates was adopted; and three of these, under a principal Collector at Masulipatam, nearly represented the present Godávari District. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis had permanently settled Bengal, and it was believed that a permanent settlement might also be with advantage applied to Madras. The Madras Government expressed its willingness to see the system introduced into the Northern Circars, although even there a great part of the country was held directly by the State. As in the case of Bengal, Lord Cornwallis formally reserved to Government the right of passing any laws which might be considered expedient for the protection of the *rayáts*. From 1794 till 1802–3, when the Permanent Settlement was introduced, the history of the District is one continuous struggle with recusant *zamíndárs*. The Settlement, owing to insufficient knowledge, was unequal in its incidence, and consequently unsuccessful. Constant sales, lawsuits, and distraints were the result. The downfall of the proprietary estates, of small and large *zamíndárs* alike, was equally rapid and equally sad. The failure of the system was pointed out by Sir Thomas Munro in 1822; but it was not till 1843, after several seasons of famine, distress, and steady decline in wealth and population (the latter decreased 30 per cent. in twenty years), that Sir Henry Montgomery was appointed to inquire and report. The reforms instituted on his representations practically put an end to the Permanent Settlement in this District. In thirty years the population has doubled; and, thanks to the splendid system of navigable irrigation works, the agriculture and commerce of the District are now in a most prosperous condition. In 1859 the boundaries were re-adjusted, and the three Districts of Guntúr (Guntoor), Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), and Masulipatam became the present Districts of Kistna and Godávari. In 1874, the *táluks* of Bhadráchalam and Rekapalle were transferred to this District from that of Upper Godávari in the Central Provinces; and in 1881, the hill *muttahs* of Dutsarti and Guditeru from Vizagapatam District.

Population has increased largely of late years. In 1856, the number of inhabitants was returned at 1,081,703; in 1861, at 1,366,831; in 1871, at 1,592,939; while in 1881 the number had risen to 1,719,512, on an area, inclusive of Bhadráchalam and Rekapalle, of 7345 square miles, and occupying 319,733 houses. Males numbered 888,969, females 902,543; proportion of females to males (in the plains) in every

1000 of the population, 504 to 496. In point of density, Godávari District ranks ninth among the Districts of the Madras Presidency, the number of persons per square mile being 234, but excluding the agency tracts, 273. The population per house, exclusive of Bhadráchalam and Rekapalle, is 5·6. Classified according to religion, there were 1,748,734 Hindus, or 97·6 per cent. of the total population; 38,798 Muhammadans, or 2·2 per cent.; 3893 Christians; 17 Jains; and 70 'others.' Of children under 10 years there were 251,926 boys and 252,322 girls, total 504,248. Between the ages of 10 and 20 there were 190,300 males and 168,638 females, total 358,938. The classification according to caste showed the Hindu population to be distributed as follows: Bráhmans, 89,412; Kshatriyas (warriors), 46,661; Shettis (traders), 43,171; Vellálars (agriculturists), 535,854; Idaiyars (shepherds), 66,151; Kammálars (artisans), 35,678; Kanakkans (writers), 4306; Kaikalars (weavers), 71,776; Vanniyans (labourers), 56,424; Kushavans (potters), 13,240; Sátáni (mixed castes), 17,078; Shembadavans (fishermen), 3702; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 161,268; Ambattan (barbers), 19,011; Vannáns (washermen), 45,631; Pariahs, 423,218; 'others,' 116,153. The distribution of the total population by occupation was as follows:—Class I., or professional, 21,092, or 1·18 per cent.; Class II., or domestic, 8275, or 0·46 per cent.; Class III., or commercial, 27,931, or 1·56 per cent.; Class IV., or agricultural, 513,451, or 28·66 per cent.; Class V., or industrial, 191,613, or 10·69 per cent.; and Class VI., or indefinite and non-productive, 1,029,150, or 57·45 per cent., of whom 6·09 were occupied. About 48 per cent., or a little less than half the population, were returned as workers, while the remaining 51½ were dependent on them. Of the males 65·62 per cent., and of the females 31·89 per cent., were workers. Excluding the hilly portion of the District, there were educated, or under instruction, 76,026 persons, of whom 3846 were females. Only 8·17 per cent. of the male population, and 0·43 per cent. of the female, were returned as educated. The Christian population consists of 250 Europeans, 412 Eurasians, 2582 native Christians, and 649 Christians whose nationality was not stated; total, 3893. Of these, 921 were Baptists, 1011 Protestants, 602 Roman Catholics, 5 followers of the Greek Church, 61 Lutherans, 12 belonged to the Church of Scotland, and 420 to the Church of England. The creed of 861 was not returned. The following are the principal towns of the District:—ELLORE, 25,092; RAJAMAHENDRI, 24,555; COCANADA, 28,856; PITHAPURAM, 11,693; PEDDAPURAM, 11,278; DOWLAISHVARAM, 8002; AMALAPURAM, 8623; NARSAPUR, 7184; PALAKOLLU, 7510; ATTILI, 7080; ACHANTA, 6568; KAPILESWARAPURAM, 5067; MANDAPETA, 5914; VELPURU, 6282; NAGAVARAM, 5839; CHAMARLAKOTTA, 4962; CORINGA, 4398; SANAVARAPETA, 3200; RELANGI,

5058; ATTARAVADI, 5747; PALEKURU, 5141; PERUR, 5264; MUMIDIVARAM, 5409; and PALEVELLA, 5561. Besides these there are 136 towns and villages of over 2000 inhabitants. Under Act iii. of 1871, three towns were constituted municipalities, viz. Ellore, Rájámahendri, and Cocanáda, with an aggregate population of 78,503; total municipal income (1881), £5910, or at the rate of 1s. 6¼d. per head of municipal population. The municipal income in 1882 was £7084. Coringa, Cocanáda, and Narsápur are the ports of the District. The two first-named places are the two principal ports on the eastern seaboard of India. Telugu, spoken by 1,727,733 persons, is almost the only language of the District.

Agriculture.—The total area of the District, including recent transfers, is 7345 square miles, of which (in 1881–82) 2914 square miles, or 1,865,328 acres, were Government land; *inám* lands occupied 448,495 acres. Of the Government land, 605,238 acres were under cultivation, 433,986 acres were cultivable, 417,831 acres were pasture and forest lands, and 408,273 acres uncultivable waste. The total area assessed was 827,771 acres, bearing a total assessment of £162,075. The remaining area is comprised in the *zamíndárí* estates (for which no detailed information exists), or is forest land. In 1882–83, the total area assessed was 865,673 acres, the amount of assessment being £164,181. This area was Government land exclusive of *ináms*. Of the cultivated Government area (1881–82), cereals occupied 697,681 acres; pulses, 66,904 acres; orchards and garden produce, 28,021 acres; tobacco, 8803 acres; condiments and spices, 13,282 acres; sugar-cane, 5762 acres; oil-seeds, 133,692 acres; indigo, 1677 acres; and fibres, 18,250 acres.

The Imperial and minor irrigation works of the District consisted, in 1881–82, of 85 large and 928 minor tanks, which irrigated a total area of 107,738 acres, realizing a water revenue of £24,891. By far the greater portion of the cultivated land is under rice. The chief crops of the District are:—(1) Cereals—(*a*) rice transplanted (white paddy), five varieties, sown in May and July, and reaped in November and January; two other sorts are sown in June and reaped in October; all these crops are grown on irrigated land; (*b*) black paddy, sown in June, and harvested in October; (*c*) *cholam*, sown in June and reaped in November and January; (*d*) *ragí*, sown in May and June, and reaped in September; these last are grown on dry lands: (2) Green crops—(*a*) gram (4 varieties), sown in December and reaped in February; (*b*) red-gram, sown in June and reaped in December: (3) Fibres—(*a*) cotton, sown in October and gathered in March; (*b*) jute, and (*c*) hemp, sown from June to August, and harvested from September to January; these are grown on dry land. The District

also produces large quantities of gingelly, tobacco, sugar-cane, and indigo.

The land on which tobacco is grown consists for the most part of alluvial islands lying within the banks of the Godávari river, called *lankás*, which are generally flooded every year. The soil of these islands, in the low parts, is covered with deep layers of coarse sand, and in other parts varies from a light friable loam to a stiff loam. The former, being composed of the finer parts of the silt brought down by the river, is the best for tobacco, though it seems to be grown on any part of the *lankás* almost indifferently. It is grown even on coarse sand, provided that it is not too deep, and that there is a layer of good soil not more than a foot or so below the surface. The seed is sown about September or October, in seed-beds which are very carefully prepared, cleaned, and heavily manured, the land being frequently stirred with the native plough until a good depth of loose mould is formed. The amount of seed allowed is 1 lb. for 8 acres, or 2 oz. per acre; and at the time of sowing it is mixed with fine sand in the proportion of 1 to 16, and sown broadcast over the area of the seed-beds. The beds are thereafter watered lightly three or four times a day for some time, and the plants come up in a week after sowing. The preparation of the tobacco ground begins after the last freshes have passed down the river. The plants are then transplanted into holes 2 to 3 feet apart, and are watered by hand from pots daily for a month or more. The leaf, after being cured, is exported to British Burma to be manufactured into cigars. The leaf is cured after the crude native method; but if a higher class of cured leaf could be turned out by persons properly trained to the work, the tobacco of the *lankás* would command a good price in European markets.

Great improvement has taken place of late years in the quality of the rice and other food-grains raised in the District, owing to the extension of irrigation by canals. A farm 100 acres in extent is considered a large holding for an agriculturist, one of about 30 acres a middling-sized one, and one of 5 acres a very small one. Government tenants have a permanent right of occupancy in their lands so long as they pay the Government demand. In *zamíndárí* estates, on the other hand, the cultivators are mostly yearly tenants. A few holders of service lands cultivate their fields for themselves without assistance. A number of landless day-labourers are employed in cultivation, paid sometimes in money, and sometimes at a fixed rate in grain, but never by a regular share in the crop. The agricultural stock of the District, in 1881–82, comprised 88,289 buffaloes, 171,932 bullocks, 110,737 cows, 70 horses, 2320 ponies, 3125 donkeys, 101,162 sheep and goats, 30,468 pigs, 1131 boats, 7815 carts, and 100,674 ploughs. The prices ruling in the District in the same year, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were as follow:—for

rice, 4s; for *ragí* (Eleusine coracana), 2s.; for *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), 2s.; for *kambu* (Panicum spicatum), 2s. 2d.; for maize, 3s. 5d.; for wheat, 6s. 4d.; for gingelly, 6s. 1¾d.; for oil-seeds, 5s.; for gram, 2s. 6d.; for tobacco, 25s. 6d.; for sugar, 28s. 7d.; for flax, 8s.; for cotton, 7s. 1½d.; and for sheep, 4s. 1d. each. Wages have doubled since 1850. A carpenter, smith, or bricklayer now (1882) earns from 10d. to 1s. a day, and an agricultural labourer from 3½d. to 4½d. Women employed in weeding and transplanting are paid at from one-half to two-thirds of the rates for men, while children receive a yet lower rate.

Natural Calamities.—Godávari District was formerly liable to severe floods caused by a sudden rising of the river, but these are now controlled by the embankments. No great famine has occurred since 1833. In that year, a famine caused by want of rain lasted from March to September, and numbers of the inhabitants fled the District. Private charity was widely extended, but no relief works were opened. Pressure from high prices was also experienced in 1876–77; but the mass of the people being themselves cultivators, and irrigation being abundant, the distress did not require extraordinary relief.

Means of Communication, Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The District is well supplied with means of communication by 692 miles of good road, 511 miles of canals, and 352 miles of communication by river. Principal manufactures—cotton and woollen carpets, woollen blankets, Uppáda cloths and sugar; chiefly conducted by the people on their own account. Indigo manufacture is also carried on by natives. The chief articles of trade are grain, cotton, jaggery, turmeric, cocoa-nut, flax cloth, onions, garlic, lace cloth, tobacco, gingelly seed, lamp-oil seed, salt, tamarind, cattle, teakwood, hides, opium, indigo, etc. The commerce of Godávari District has been rapidly increasing. The largely augmented area under cultivation since the completion of the great Godávari anicut, and the system of water communication in the Delta and with the adjoining District of Kistna, have applied an impetus to trade. Cocanáda is the port through which the new trade must flow, and it is possible that an attempt will be made to remove the bar of accumulated silt that now forms the obstacle to a good harbour. The lighthouse at Cocanáda was erected in 1865. Many of the native craft that enter the port hail from the Maldive Islands. The trade is carried on along the coast and in large towns and ports by means of permanent markets, and in almost all other places by fairs. The principal seats of commerce are Cocanáda, Ellore, Rájámahendri, Mandapetta, Jaggampetta, Hasanbada, Narsápur, Palákollu, Dowlaishvaram, Ambájipetta, Jagannáthpur. The estimated value of imports in 1881–82 was £219,931, exclusive of treasure, which amounted to £64,511. Estimated value of exports, £1,247,330, exclusive of £75,000 of treasure.

Administration.—The Government revenue has steadily increased. In 1860–61, the first year after the present District was constituted, the total revenue amounted to £421,246, and the expenditure on civil administration to £48,017. In 1870–71, the revenue was £531,043, and the civil expenditure £23,368. By 1881–82, the revenue had reached £641,744, while the expenditure was £28,362. The principal items of Imperial revenue are land, which yielded in 1881–82, £461,011; excise, £43,931; assessed taxes, £2819; customs, £4544; salt, £87,065; and stamps, £35,353. For the protection of person and property, there were in 1881–82, 29 magisterial and 19 revenue and civil courts in the District. The regular police and municipal police force in 1881 numbered 1469 officers and men, costing £21,528, and showing a proportion of 1 policeman to every 5 square miles of the area, and to every 1219 of the population. In 1881–82, there were 915 schools, with 25,435 pupils; of these schools 681 were maintained or supported by the State. There were also 1091 indigenous schools, with 27,607 pupils. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at Cocanáda; but the Judge's court and the District jail are at Rájámahendri. Daily average number of prisoners in 1881 in Rájámahendri Central Prison, 958; and in the District jail, 162; expenditure for the year—Central Prison, £7064; District jail, £1201: total, £8265.

Medical Aspects.—The prevailing endemic diseases of Godávari District are *beri-beri* and fevers. *Beri-beri* is a rheumatic affection attended with dropsical swelling. Among Europeans its occurrence is very rare. It is more prevalent on the coast than inland. There is both an acute and a chronic form. It is a disease of middle life, and is said to be peculiar to the male sex. Cholera is prevalent during the hot seasons of the year; small-pox also occurs at the same periods; fevers come after the cessation of rain. Cattle diseases are also prevalent. Cholera is usually imported by travellers coming from the north. The average annual rainfall from 1871–72 to 1881–82 was 40·42 inches; the highest rainfall being in 1878–79, when 62·29 inches were registered, and the lowest in 1877–78, when only 27·46 inches fell. The mean temperature for each month during 1881 at Rájámahendri was—January 85° F., February 89°, March 97°, April 90°, May 80°, June 84°, July 86°, August 83°, September 74°, October 75°, November 74°, and December 74°. The number of births per 1000, registered in 1882, was 21·6; number of deaths per 1000, 16·9.

Storms.—A destructive inundation took place at Coringa in 1787. The first great cyclone recorded was in 1832. The sea broke in at Coringa, and destroyed a great number of people, cattle, and houses; a small village near Coringa was entirely swept away, and the country was laid under water for many miles inland. Again, on the 16th

November 1839, a similar storm destroyed great parts of Cocanáda, Coringa, Tallarevu, and Nilapalli. Most of the vessels lying near these places were wrecked, and the value of the property lost was estimated at £100,000. Narsápur, as it lies on the banks of the Godávari, has always been exposed to inundations during the high freshes of the river. Two cyclones visited the District in 1878, one on the 5th November and the other on the 6th December. The first commenced about 8 A.M., and continued up to 4 P.M. Considerable damage was done, but there was no encroachment of the sea upon the land. The second was accompanied with heavier rain, and lasted for more than a day. Many canals, tanks, and roads were breached, and much damage done to houses and trees.

Godávari (*Godavery*).—A great river of Central India, which runs across the Deccan from the Western to the Eastern Gháts; for sanctity, picturesque scenery, and utility to man, surpassed only by the Ganges and the Indus; total length, 898 miles; estimated area of drainage basin, 112,200 square miles. The traditional source is on the side of a hill behind the village of Trimbak, in Násik District, Bombay Presidency, about 50 miles from the shore of the Indian Ocean. At this spot is an artificial reservoir, reached by a flight of 690 steps, into which the water trickles drop by drop from the lips of a carven image, shrouded by a canopy of stone. From first to last, the general direction of the river is towards the south-east. After passing through Násik District, it forms for some distance the boundary between Ahmadnagar and the dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád. It then crosses into the territory of the Nizám, running for more than 500 miles of its course through a country that has been little explored. Near SIRONCHA, where it again strikes British territory, is the confluence of the PRANHITA, itself a noble river, which brings down the united waters of the WARDHA, the PENGANGA, and the WAINGANGA. From Sironcha to the point where it bursts through the barrier range of the Eastern Gháts, the south bank of the Godávari continues to lie within the Nizám's Dominions; while on the north stretches the narrow strip of country known as the UPPER GODAVARI DISTRICT, in the Central Provinces. In this portion of its course it is joined by the INDRAVATI, the TAL, and the SABARI.

On reaching this stage, the Godávari has grown into an imposing stream, with a channel varying from 1 mile to more than 2 miles in breadth, occasionally broken by long alluvial islands. The British bank is for the most part rocky and steep, and covered with primeval jungle. Parallel to the river run long ranges of hills, which at places advance their abrupt spurs almost to the water's edge. On the opposite side, the country is more open and cultivated. Several flourishing towns are to be seen, and the plain stretching away southwards, which

included the capital of the ancient kingdom of Telingána, is thickly dotted with tanks for irrigation. Below the junction of the Sábari, the scenery assumes the character which has earned for the Godávari the name of the Indian Rhine. The channel begins to contract; the flanking hills gradually close in on either side, until the precipitous gorge is reached, only 200 yards wide, through which the entire volume of water is poured upon the alluvial plain of the delta, about 60 miles from the sea. This mountain range, and the remainder of the course of the river until it reaches the Bay of Bengal by three principal mouths, is entirely included within the Madras District of GODAVARI. The head of the delta is at the village of Dowlaishvaram, where the main stream is crossed by the irrigation anicut. The largest of the three branches, known as the Gautami Godávari, turns eastward, and, after passing the quiet French settlement of Yanáon, enters the sea at Point Koringa, not far from the port of Cocanáda. The most southerly branch, or the Vashista Godávari, debouches at Point Narsápur, after throwing off the third offshoot called the Vainateyam Godávari.

The peculiar sacredness of the Godávari is said to have been revealed by Ráma himself to the *rishi*, or sage, Gautama. The river is sometimes called Godá, and the sacred character especially attaches to the Gautami mouth. According to popular legend, it proceeds from the same source as the Ganges, by an underground passage; and this identity is preserved in the familiar name of Vriddha-gangá. But every part of its course is holy ground, and to bathe in its waters will wash away the blackest sin. Once in every twelve years a great bathing festival, called *Pushkaram*, is held on the banks of the Godávari, alternately with the other eleven sacred rivers of India. The spots most frequented by pilgrims are—the source at Trimbak; the town of Bhadráchalam on the left bank, about 100 miles above Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), where stands an ancient temple of Rámachandradu, surrounded by twenty-four smaller pagodas; Rájámahendri itself; and the village of Kotipalli, on the left bank of the eastern mouth.

Throughout the upper portion of its course, the waters of the Godávari are scarcely at all utilized for irrigation; but within recent times, the entire delta has been turned into a garden of perennial crops by means of the magnificent anicut constructed at Dowlaishvaram. This great work was first projected towards the close of the last century by Mr. Michael Topping; but it was not until 1844, when the impoverished condition of the people, from repeated failures of the harvest, forced the matter on the attention of Government, that it became the subject of a special report from Sir H. Montgomery. It was resolved by Government to undertake irrigation works on a comprehensive scale; and the management was entrusted to Captain (now Sir Arthur)

Cotton, who had experience of the successful works on the Káveri (Cauvery) in Tanjore District. Operations were commenced in 1847, and completed according to the original design by 1850. Up to 1853, the total expenditure had been £153,000. From March 1847 up to April 1850, there had been expended in daily wages for the labourers £23,913. In the year of the most extensive building operations there were in constant employment 641 bricklayers, 365 stonemasons, and, upon an average, 6500 coolies or ordinary labourers.

The principal work is the anicut or weir at Dowlaishvaram, at the head of the delta, from which three main canals are drawn off. The river channel here is about 3½ miles wide, including the space occupied by islands. The anicut itself is a substantial mass of stone, bedded in lime cement, about 2½ miles long, 38 feet above mean sea-level, 130 feet broad at the base, and 12 feet high. The stream is thus pent back, so as to supply a volume of 3000 cubic feet of water per second during its low season, and 12,000 cubic feet at time of flood. As is the case with all deltaic streams, the river runs along the crest of a natural embankment several feet above the alluvial plain. Dowlaishvaram is about 20 feet above the lowest level, and therefore easily commands the whole area of the delta. The total length of the main channels of distribution is estimated at 528 miles, capable of irrigating 612,000 acres. In 1882–83, the area actually irrigated from the Godávari Delta system was 504,213 acres; profit during the same year, £84,583, equal to an interest of 7·68 per cent. on the total capital outlay. Of the 528 miles of canal, 458 miles are also used for navigation. In 1864, an extension of the original scheme was sanctioned, by which water communication has been opened between the river systems of the Godávari and the Kistna. Completion estimates for the entire Godávari Delta system, amounting to £1,303,265 for direct and indirect charges, were sanctioned by the Secretary of State in 1882. For a detailed account of the history of these irrigation works, see *The Manual of the Godavery District*, by Mr. H. Morris (Trübner, 1878).

The more recent project for opening for navigation the upper waters of the Godávari has not been crowned with equal success. In 1851, before the railway had penetrated through the heart of the peninsula, it was hoped that the Godávari, or rather its tributary the Wardha, might supply a cheap means of carriage for the cotton and other agricultural produce of the Central Provinces. This line of navigation would have had its upper terminus at the mart of Nachangáon, not far from Nágpur and Amráoti; and it would have passed by the great cotton emporium of Hinghanghát, and the towns of Wún and Chánda, reaching the sea by the flourishing port of Cocanáda. During nine months of the year

there is sufficient water for shallow river steamers; and the force of the current does not exceed 3 miles an hour. There are, however, three great obstructions to navigation, caused by rocky barriers and rapids. The first of these barriers is at Dúmagúdiem, about 115 miles above Rájámahendri; the second about 68 miles higher up, just below the confluence of the Pránhita; the third is on the Wardha, about 75 miles above the second. It was proposed to construct canals round these barriers by means of anicuts and locks, and to clear the river-bed in other places by blasting. Between 1861 and 1863, about £700,000 was expended upon the navigation works; but comparatively little real progress had been made, and the prospects of any remunerative return had become more than doubtful. Finally, in October 1871, the entire undertaking was abandoned, in accordance with instructions from the Secretary of State. The navigation on the canals of the delta has already been alluded to.

Goddá.—Sub-division of Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated between 24° 30′ and 25° 14′ N. lat., and between 87° 5′ and 87° 38′ E. long. Area, 966 square miles, with 1758 villages and 58,195 houses. Total population (1881) 348,493, namely, males 173,004, and females 175,489. Average density of population, 360 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·8; persons per village, 255; houses per square mile, 61·6; persons per house, 6. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 190,900; Muhammadans, 25,273; Santáls, 112,583; Kols, 929; other aboriginal tribes, 16,227; Christians, 84; unspecified, 2497. This Sub-division, which was constituted in 1856, consists of the *thána* or police circle of Goddá. It contained in 1883, 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 52 men; village watchmen, 666.

Godhrá.—Sub-division of Pánch Mahάls District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 598 square miles; contains 1 town and 232 villages. Population (1881) 78,318, namely, 40,895 males and 37,423 females. Hindus number 64,015; Muhammadans, 7712; 'others,' 6591. The Sub-division is well wooded and well tilled in the west, but in the north becomes a plain country of brushwood and forest with rough and scanty cultivation. The climate is unhealthy. Average annual rainfall, 45·7 inches. The Máhi and the Pánam flow through the Sub-division. The rates of settlement were fixed for 30 years in 1873-74; average incidence of land revenue per acre, 1s. 5d. In 1873 there were 6430 holdings with an average of 14 acres each, and paying an average rent of 13s. 10d. Maize is the staple of cultivation. The Sub-division in 1883 contained 1 civil and 5 criminal courts; police station (*thána*), 1; regular police, 195 men. Land revenue, £5903 in 1884.

Godhrá.—Chief town of Godhrá Sub-division, District of the

Panch Mahâls, Gujarát (Guzerat), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 46′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 40′ E.; situated on the main road from Nímach (Neemuch) to Baroda, 52 miles north-east of Baroda town, and 43 west of Dohad. Population (1881) 13,342. Hindus number 5927; Muhammadans, 6339; Jains, 623; Christians, 41; Pársís, 12; and 'others,' 400. The town is almost surrounded by jungle. Formerly it was the head-quarters of a provincial governor under the Muhammadan kings of Ahmadábád. In addition to the usual District head-quarters offices and courts, there is a sub-judge's and *mámlatdár's* court, a post-office, a dispensary, and a subordinate jail for short-term prisoners. Godhrá is also the head-quarters of the Rewa-Kántha Political Agency, transferred from Baroda in 1880, consequent on its amalgamation with the Panch Mahâls. A considerable area of rice land is irrigated from a large tank in the neighbourhood. The extension of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 17 miles from Pali, across the river Mahi, has reached this town and increased its importance in trade by a revival of the old route from Málwa to Gujarát. A line to connect Godhrá with the opium mart of Rutlam was begun in 1884-85. Municipal income (1880-81), £612, and £504 in 1882-83; incidence of taxation per head of municipal population (10,641), 1s. 2d. in 1880-81, and 9d. in 1882-83. Oil-pressing was started in 1867, and a steam mill was erected in that year. The mill, however, ceased working in 1877. Near the town is an embanked lake 70 acres in area. Godhrá has 3 vernacular schools.

Godná (or *Revelganj*).—Town and municipality in Sáran District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 46′ 56″ N., long. 84° 41′ 7″ E. Situated just above the junction of the Ganges and Gogra (Ghagrá), and built along the banks of the latter river; the largest mart in Sáran District. Its trade may be classed under two heads:—(1) Its local trade as the port of Sáran, representing also Champáran and Nepál; exports—maize, barley, peas, oil-seeds, saltpetre, sugar, cotton, and wheat; imports—rice, salt, and piece-goods: (2) Its through trade between Bengal and the North-West. Godná is the great changing station, where the boats from Lower Bengal transship their cargoes of rice and salt into the Faizábád (Fyzábád) and Gorakhpur boats, which give in exchange wheat, barley, pulses, and oil-seeds. Several Calcutta firms are represented in the town. The population of Godná in 1872 was returned at 13,415, and in 1881 at 12,493, namely, males 5683, and females 6810. Area of town site, 2560 acres. Hindus in 1881 numbered 10,399; and Muhammadans, 2094. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £812; (1881-82), £1169; incidence of taxation, 1s. 7d. per head.; municipal police, 41 men. Dispensary, *bázár*, and fair held twice a year. The native name of this town is Godná. It is celebrated as the residence of Gautama, the founder of the school of Nyáyá philosophy or Indian logic. No

traces of his dwelling exist: but a wretched hovel and a pair of shoes are still pointed out to pilgrims.

The commercial importance of Godná dates from the end of the last century. In 1788, Mr. Revell, collector of Government customs, was deputed to open a custom-house and *bázár* at this place. After his death he became an eponymous hero. To the present day his tomb is visited as a shrine by the market people, and his name is invoked on all occasions of calamity. The chief business done is in oil-seeds, brought down the Gogra from the Districts of Oudh, and here trans-shipped into larger boats for conveyance to Patná and Calcutta. The traders are mostly agents of firms at those two cities, and they transact business on commission. The principal European firm represented is that of Messrs. Ralli Brothers. A distinction in their course of business is observed by European and native merchants. The object of the Europeans is to use the railway at Patná to the utmost. They therefore have their oil-seeds cleaned at Patná by a special class of women. The rate of freight from Godná to Patná is 1 anna per bag, or Rs. 3 per 100 *maunds;* the voyage takes two days during the rainy season and three days at other times of the year. From Patná the cleaned seed is despatched by rail to Calcutta. The native merchants scarcely use the railway at all. They buy up oil-seeds when the prices are low, and store them along the river bank until they can obtain a good market at Calcutta. Then they despatch them all the way by boat, in their uncleaned state. There are no facilities for cleaning at Godná. The freight to Calcutta varies from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per 100 *maunds.* The voyage occupies about fifteen days during the rains and forty days in the dry weather. The native traders do not insure. They draw bills, accepted by their bankers at Calcutta, who thus become practically the insurers; for if a heavy loss is sustained, the traders fail, and the bankers have to pay.

In the year 1876–77 (the last year for which figures are available, the inland river registration station being now abolished), the total registered trade of Godná, including both imports and exports, was valued at over one million sterling. But it is admitted that great part of the imports, especially European piece-goods from Diná-pur, escaped registration altogether. Oil-seeds were imported to the amount of 559,000 *maunds*, valued at £207,000. Nearly one-half came from the District of Faizábád (Fyzábád), the rest from Bahráich, Gorakhpur, Gonda, Sítápur, and Basti. The exports of oil-seeds were 895,000 *maunds*, valued at £333,000, consigned in almost equal moieties to Patná and Calcutta. Considerably more than half the total was linseed. Food-grains of all kinds were imported to the amount of 976,000 *maunds*, valued at £181,000. Wheat, pulses, and gram, and other spring crops, are received from

Oudh, to be sent on to Calcutta, Patná, and the Districts of Behar. Rice is imported for local consumption to the amount of 293,000 *maunds*, chiefly from Northern Bengal. The total export of food-grains was 530,000 *maunds*, valued at £110,000, chiefly wheat to Calcutta and Patná, and inferior grains to Tirhút. Salt was imported to the amount of 203,000 *maunds*, valued at £101,000, of which 140,000 *maunds* came direct from Calcutta, and the rest from Patná. The exports of salt were only 24,000 *maunds*, valued at £17,000, principally to Gorakhpur. The other articles of trade included timber, £35,000; sugar, £16,000; saltpetre, £4000. No trade statistics are available for 1881–82, but the commerce of the place has greatly decreased of late years, and is likely to continue to do so as the Patná-Bahraich Railway is opened.

Gogha.—Town and Sub-division in Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* Gogo.

Goghat.—Village and police station in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ 15″ N., long. 87° 44′ 50″ E. Recently transferred from Bardwán District.

Gogo.—Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 224 square miles; contains 1 town and 62 villages. Population (1881) 29,370, namely, 14,824 males and 14,546 females. Hindus number 24,082; Muhammadans, 3879; 'others,' 1409. Since 1871, the population of the Sub-division has decreased by 4459. There is but little State land in Gogo. The Khokhra hills, with a peak 600 feet high, bound one side of the Sub-division. Climate cool and healthy. A steady sea-breeze blows during the hot-weather months. The average Settlement holding is 24 acres in extent, and pays a rental of £1, 4s. 5d. *Joar* is the chief crop, occupying 33,000 acres out of 37,000 under actual cultivation in 1877–78. About 2000 acres were under wheat. Cotton and rice are seldom grown. The Sub-division in 1883 contained 2 criminal courts and 1 police station (*thána*); regular police, 54 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 69. Land revenue (1882–83), £3870.

Gogo (or *Goghá*). — Chief town of the Sub-division of Gogo, Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, on the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 21° 39′ 30″ N., long. 72° 15′ E., 193 miles north-west of Bombay. Population (1872) 9572; (1881) 7063, namely, 3389 Hindus, 2728 Muhammadans, 708 Jains, 53 Christians, 3 Pársís, and 182 'others.' About three-quarters of a mile east of the town is an excellent anchorage, in some measure sheltered by the island of Perim (*Piram*), which lies still farther east. The natives of this town are reckoned the best sailors or *laskars* in India; and ships touching here may procure water and supplies, or repair damages. The roadstead is a safe refuge during the south-west monsoon, or for vessels

that have parted from their anchors in the Surat roads, the bottom being an uniform bed of mud, and the water always smooth. When the Dutch raised Surat to be the chief port of Gujarát, the Cambay ports were more or less injured. Gogo has of late years lost its commercial importance. During the American war it was one of the chief cotton marts of Káthiáwár. It is now deserted; its cotton presses idle; and its great storehouses ruinous and empty. Its rival, Bháunagar, is 8 miles nearer to the cotton districts. North of the town is a black salt marsh, extending to the Bháunagar creek. On the other sides undulating cultivated land slopes to the range of hills 12 miles off. South of the town is another salt marsh. The land in the neighbourhood is inundated at high spring tides, which renders it necessary to bring fresh water from a distance of a mile. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1880-81—exports, £39,393; imports, £57,046.

Gogra (*Ghágra*, also called the *Deoha* and *Great Sarju*).—The great river of Oudh. It rises in the upper ranges of the Himálayas, and, after passing through Nepál as the KAURIALA, issues from the hills at a place called Shíshapání, or the 'Crystal Waters,' where it sweeps down on the plains in a series of rapids over immense boulders which it has brought with it from the hills during the course of ages. Almost immediately after it debouches on the *tarái*, the stream splits into two; the western branch retains the name of the Kauriálá, but the eastern, known as the GIRWA, has a volume of water superior to that of the main stream. After a course of about 18 miles through the midst of fine *sál* forests, and over rough stony beds, the twin streams enter British territory in lat. 26° 27′ N., long. 82° 17′ E., a few miles distant from each other, and re-unite a few miles below Bharthapur; and here the bed loses its rocky character and becomes sandy. Almost immediately below the confluence of the Kauriálá and Gírwa, the stream is joined by the Suheli from Kheri District; but it receives no other affluents of any importance until, after a southerly course of 47 miles, marking the boundary between Bahráich and Kheri, it is joined by the SARJU just above Katáighát. Below the confluence, the united stream is swelled by the Chauká and Dahávar at Bahramghát. From this point the river takes its name of the Gogra. It flows in a south-easterly and afterwards an easterly course, forming the boundary between Bahráich and Gonda on the north, and Bara Banki and Faizábád (Fyzábád) on the south. It leaves Oudh in the west; and, marking the boundary between the North-Western Provinces Districts of Basti and Gorakhpur on the north, and Azamgarh on the south, receives the Muchora and Rápti as tributaries on its left bank. In its course along the northern boundary of Azamgarh District, the Gogra throws off an affluent, the Lesser (*chhotá*) Sarju, which takes a south-easterly course along what is

supposed to be an ancient channel of the Gogra, through Azamgarh and Gházípur Districts, joining the Ganges below Ballia town. It then touches on the Bengal District of Sáran at Darauli, and finally empties itself into the Ganges at Chaprá, in lat. 25° 43′ N., long. 84° 43′ 30″ E., after an estimated course of upwards of 600 miles.

Many changes in the course of the Gogra have taken place in olden times. Its waters have shown an inclination towards abandoning lateral channels, and selecting a central one, as in the well-known case of the SARDA, from which a magnificent system of canals to irrigate the Gogra-Gúmti *doáb* is about to be constructed. On both sides of the present stream are seen ancient channels of the river, and high banks within which it once flowed. There were formerly, probably, three main channels of the river, whose volumes varied each year as accidental circumstances diverted the greater part of the water into one or other. A great flood of the Gogra took place about 1600 A.D., which swept away the town of Khurása in Gonda, and considerable encroachments have also been made by the river in Azamgarh District. During the past century, there has been but little change in the channel beyond slight encroachments on its banks, by which villages are occasionally swept away during the rains. The old eastern and western channels have to a great extent silted up, but in the rains contain a considerable quantity of water. The depth of the river in mid-channel is nowhere less than 6 feet, but boats drawing more than 4 feet are not desirable, because they may be carried by the current on to shallows. The boats are generally clinker built, the largest carrying about 1200 *maunds* or 45 tons. They are usually without decks, the cargo being protected by mat awnings; the cost of carriage is very small. The only large town on the banks of the river is FAIZABAD (Fyzábád); Barhaj, at the confluence of the Gogra and Rápti, is an important mart, but is in no other respects remarkable. A pontoon bridge crosses the Gogra at Faizábád; and bridges of boats during the cold and hot seasons are kept up at Bahramghát and Dohrighát; during the rains they are replaced by a well-served ferry; 45 other ferries are maintained at different points of the river in Oudh, and several in the North-Western Provinces.

The Gogra is, commercially speaking, the most important waterway in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. The traffic which it carried in 1879-80, the year in which it was registered under the superintendence of the Department of Agriculture and Commerce, amounted to considerably more than one-fourth of the whole water-borne traffic; and if its tributary the Rápti be included, the united traffic comes to nearly half the whole water-borne traffic. The returns show the total traffic carried by the Gogra to have been over 23½ *lákhs*

(2,350,000) of *maunds*, or about 86,000 tons; 21 *lákhs* (2,100,000) *maunds* being carried down stream, and 2½ *lákhs* (250,000) *maunds* up stream. The down-stream traffic runs in three well-marked lines: (1) Transport of timber from the Nepál forests on the Kauriálá, and of grain and oil-seeds from Bahráich to the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Bahramghát. (2) Transport of grain and oil-seeds from Bahráich to Patná. (3) Transport of grain and oil-seeds from Nawábganj (opposite Faizábád) in Gonda District to Patná. The weight of timber thus carried is estimated at 100,000 *maunds*, and of grain and oil-seeds 1,825,000 *maunds*, of which 875,000 *maunds* were despatched from Nawábganj to Patná. The up-stream traffic is of comparatively small importance, consisting principally of rice, metals, salt, stone, and sugar, imported from Patná and consigned to Dohrighát in Azamgarh District.

Gogunda.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Contains about 1500 houses. Situated on the watershed at a height of 2750 feet above the sea, and probably the highest town on the whole of the Aravalli range. The country around is open and undulating, and there is a good sheet of water to the south-east of the town. A first-class noble of Udaipur, who owns 104 villages, resides here, and the town gives its name to his estate. Twenty-five miles to the north is the temple of Jargo, where a large fair is held annually.

Gohad.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India. Distant 60 miles south-east from Agra, and situated on the road from Etáwah to Gwalior, 55 miles south-west of the former, and 28 north-east of the latter town. Lat. 26° 25′ N., long. 78° 29′ E. A fortified town, formerly the capital of a Ját chieftain, who rose into power from the position of a landholder during the troublous times at the beginning of the last century, and established himself at the expense of his neighbours. In 1779, the chief entered into alliance with the British, who assisted him in a struggle against Sindhia. Sindhia's capital, with the fort, was captured by a British force, and made over to the Gohad chief. Five years later, however, the position was reversed; Sindhia besieged and re-obtained possession of Gwalior fort, and also captured the capital (Gohad) of his enemy. In 1803, certain territorial arrangements were effected by which the town and territory of Gohad were transferred to Sindhia, and the Gohad Ráná received instead the territory of DHOLPUR, which his descendants still hold. The fortifications of Gohad consist of an outer curtain of mud, faced with stone, enclosing an extensive area, between which and the citadel are two other walls. The citadel is lofty, with massive towers, and has spacious and commodious apartments. Thieffenthaler, who visited Gohad in the last century, describes it as a populous and rich place. It is now, however, much decayed.

Gohána.—Northern *tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab; irrigated by

the Western Jumna Canal, which affords a water-supply to 39,664 acres. Area, 338 square miles; population (1881) 127,732, namely, males 69,079, and females 58,653, or 378 per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 106,812; Muhammadans, 17,579; Sikhs, 8974; and 'others,' 3295. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, who presides over one civil and one criminal court. Strength of regular police, 32 men; village watchmen, 175. Land revenue of the *tahsíl*, £21,482.

Hindus numbered 84,385; Muhammadans, 4568; and 'others,' 4991.
of persons per *mauzá*, 4944 persons; persons per
Sub-division was constituted in 1846. In 1883 it
terial and 2 revenue and civil courts, together with
rce of 26 men. An Assistant and extra-Assistant
ordinarily posted in this Sub-division.

lage in Sibságar District, Assam, and head-quarters
of the same name, on the Dhaneswari (Dhansari)
N.; long. 94° E. Population (1881) 1906. The
increased in importance as being the depôt in con-
transport and commissariat offices for the troops in
It is built on high ground, broken by ravines, and
e healthiest places in Assam. It was erected into a
n 1881. Steamers are able to reach Golághát during

Gohelwád).—A tract of country lying to the south-
one of the four divisions or *pránths* of Káthiáwár,
cy, and so named from the tribe of Gohel Rájputs by
pally peopled and owned. It lies along the Gulf of
an area of over 4000 square miles. Population of
1) 98,395, of whom 52,238 were males and 46,157
Hindus numbered 70,447; Muhammadans, 18,076;
ristians, 253; Pársís, 116; and 'others,' 323. The
this division is BHAUNAGAR.

division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency.
miles; contains 1 town and 113 villages, of which 85
Population (1881) 93,029, namely, 46,464 males
les, dwelling in 18,484 houses. Hindus numbered
madans, 5909; 'others,' 2126. Since 1871, the
Sub-division has decreased by 16,668.

f town of the Gokák Sub-division, Belgáum District,
cy. Lat. 16° 10′ N., long. 74° 52′ E.; 42 miles north-
Population (1872) 12,612; (1881) 10,307, namely,
508 Muhammadans, 220 Jains; municipal revenue
(1882–83), £781; rate of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 6;

Gurdáspur.—Central *tahsíl* of Gurdáspur D[istrict] between lat. 32° 12′ 45″ and 31° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 8′ and 75° 38′ 30″ E. Area, 484 square miles; population (1881) 208,228, namely, males 114,285, and females 93,943; average density, 431 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were—

regular police, 47 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 399. Head-quarters of the chief revenue and police officers of the Sub-division, post-office, and dispensary. Gokák was formerly the seat of a large dyeing and weaving industry; of late years this business has much decayed, but there is still a considerable trade in coarse paper. Toys representing figures and fruits, made of light wood, and of a particular earth found in the neighbourhood, command an extensive sale.

Gokarn (*Cow's ear*).—Town in North Kánara District, Bombay

carried is estimated at 100,000 *maunds*, and of grain and oil-seeds 1,825,000 *maunds*, of which 875,000 *maunds* were despatch...
Nawábganj to Patná. The up-stream traffic is
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Contains about 1500 houses. Situated on the wa
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the town gives its name to his estate. Twenty-fi
is the temple of Jargo, where a large fair is held a

Gohad.—Town in Gwalior State, Central Ind
south-east from Agra, and situated on the road fro

£380; in 1882, £47.
head of the population.
Gurgáon.—District
lying between 27° 39'
and 77° 35' E. long.

Hindu tradition regards the village as the spot where Vishnu first visited the earth in the form of Krishna. Also noted as the place where Vallabhi Swámi, a Hindu reformer of the 16th century, first preached his doctrines.

Golá.—Town in Bánsgáon *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Situated on the banks of the Gogra (Ghágra) river, at the converging point of three metalled roads from Gorakhpur town, 33 miles distant to the north. Population (1881) 7193, namely, Hindus, 6466; Muhammadans, 725; and Christians, 2. Area of town site, 74 acres. A flourishing market town and a considerable depôt for the collection and river export of grain. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Police station, post-office, and good elementary school. The town is the head-quarters of a sub-division of the Opium Department.

Golá.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh, on the road from Lakhimpur to Sháhjahánpur. Lat. 28° 4′ 40″ N., long. 80° 30′ 45″ E. Picturesquely situated at the base of a semicircle of small hills, covered for the most part with *sál* forests, with a lake to the south. Population (1869) 2584; (1881) 3018, namely, 2425 Hindus, and 593 Muhammadans. The Gosáin community has a monastic establishment here, and numerous tombs have been built in honour of its principal men.

Seat of considerable sugar manufacture. Daily market, and special bi-weekly market. Seat of an important Hindu fair held twice every year, in the months of Phálgun and Chaitra, in honour of Gokarnáth Mahádeo. These fairs last for fifteen days each, and are attended by from 75,000 to 100,000 persons, traders as well as pilgrims. Estimated average annual value of trade, £10,000.

Golághát.—Sub-division in Sibságar District, Assam; containing 19 *mauzás* or village unions, and 16,845 houses. Population (1872) 76,486; (1881) 93,944, namely, 49,703 males and 44,241 females. Hindus numbered 84,385; Muhammadans, 4568; and 'others,' 4991. Average number of persons per *mauzá*, 4944 persons; persons per house, 5·5. The Sub-division was constituted in 1846. In 1883 it contained 2 magisterial and 2 revenue and civil courts, together with a regular police force of 26 men. An Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioner are ordinarily posted in this Sub-division.

Golághát.—Village in Sibságar District, Assam, and head-quarters of the Sub-division of the same name, on the Dhaneswari (Dhansari) river. Lat. 26° 30′ N.; long. 94° E. Population (1881) 1906. The town has recently increased in importance as being the depôt in connection with the transport and commissariat offices for the troops in the Nága Hills. It is built on high ground, broken by ravines, and ranks as one of the healthiest places in Assam. It was erected into a municipal union in 1881. Steamers are able to reach Golághát during the rainy season, and the river is navigable for small boats all the year through. In the cold weather, the Nágás from beyond the frontier come down in large numbers, bringing cotton, and vegetables, such as yams, sweet potatoes, ginger, pumpkins, etc., to barter for salt, fish, and live stock.

Golconda.—Fortress and ruined city, situated in the Nizám's Dominions, 7 miles west of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) city. Lat. 17° 22′ N., long. 78° 26′ 30″ E. In former times, Golconda was a large and powerful kingdom of the Deccan, which arose on the downfall of the Báhmani dynasty, but was subdued by Aurangzeb in 1687, and annexed to the dominions of the Delhi Empire. Golconda was the capital of the Kutab Sháhi kings, who had their court here from 1512 to 1687. Originally it was a small fort built by the Rájá of Warangal, who ceded it together with its dependencies to a Báhmani king of Gulburgah (Kalburga) in 1364. In 1512 it passed from the Báhmani kings to the kings of the Kutab Sháhi line. The boundaries of the kingdom of Golconda, one of the five sovereignties that rose on the downfall of the Báhmanis, extended along the left bank of the Tungabhadra river as far as its junction with the Bhíma, and then followed the line of hills to the south-west, which formed the frontiers of the Bidar region. After a prosperous reign of thirty years, the first Kutab Sháhi king was

assassinated by the commandant of the fort at the instigation of the king's son. In the reign of Ibráhím Sháhi, the existence of diamonds in Golconda territory was discovered at Partiál and Kanat and other places. In 1589, the son and successor of Ibráhím commenced to build the present city of Haidarábád, on the banks of the Musi, 5 miles from Golconda. The kingdom now reached the zenith of its prosperity. Ibráhím's successor died in 1611, and from that date until the arrival of Aurangzeb in the Deccan (1657), the annals of Golconda are uncertain. During Aurangzeb's viceroyalty on behalf of Sháh Jahán at Aurungábád, the famous Mír Jumlá was Prime Minister or *diwán* at Golconda, and having incurred the anger of the Golconda king, fled for protection to Aurangzeb. As an answer to Mír Jumlá's appeal, Aurangzeb suddenly appeared before Haidarábád, plundered Golconda, and forced the Sháhi king to pay a ransom equal to one million sterling. Mír Jumlá took service with the Mughal and afterwards rose to power; he was originally a servant in the train of a Persian merchant trading with the Deccan. After the submission of Golconda, Mír Jumlá visited the court of Sháh Jahán. In 1675, the Mughal commander in the Deccan advanced to punish Golconda for assisting the Maráthá Sivají after his escape from Agra, but the forces of Golconda defeated those of the Mughals. In 1687, Aurangzeb, now Emperor at Delhi, besieged and captured Golconda after a struggle of seven months' duration. Thenceforward Golconda, now deserted, lost even the memory of its former greatness.

The fortress of Golconda, situated on a rocky ridge of granite, is extensive, and contains many enclosures. It is strong and in good repair, but is commanded by the summits of the enormous and massive mausolea of the ancient kings, about 600 yards distant. These buildings, which are now the chief characteristic of the place, form a vast group, situated in an arid, rocky desert. They have suffered considerably from the ravages of time, but more from the hand of man, and nothing but the great solidity of their walls has preserved them from utter ruin. These tombs were erected at great expense, some of them being said to have cost as much as £150,000. Golconda fort is now used as the Nizám's treasury, and also as the State prison. It is held by a small Arab garrison in the service of Haidarábád. Visitors require permission from the Nizam's minister to go over the fort. The diamonds of Golconda have obtained great celebrity throughout the world; but they were merely cut and polished here, being generally found at Partiál, near the south-eastern frontier of the Nizám's territory.

Golconda (*Golugonda* or *Golgonda*).—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Latitude, 18° 28′ to 18° 4′ N.; longitude, 81° 30′ to 82° 40′ E.; area, 161 square miles, with 178 villages, 21,711 houses,

and (1881) 97,748 inhabitants—namely, males 49,383, and females 48,365. Classified according to religion, there were, Hindus, 96,874; Muhammadans, 838; Christians, 6; and 'others,' 30. Of the villages, 113 are *ráyatwárí*, or held direct from Government by the cultivators. Land revenue, £11,486. This *táluk*, which contains a large tract of hill country, and about 600 square miles of Government forest, was one of the largest and most ancient *zamíndárís* or landed estates in the District, the *zamíndárs* being relatives and feudatories of the Jaipur (Jeypore) chief. Of the tract above the *gháts*, two *muttás* (Dutsarti and Guditeru), with an area of about 400 square miles, were transferred to Godávari District in 1881. In 1836, in consequence of the murder of the Rání, the British authorities sequestrated the estate and imprisoned the *zamíndár*, and in the following year the estate was bought by Government at auction. In 1845 the *sardárs* or chiefs rose in rebellion, and held their ground for three years; and again, in 1857-58, it was found necessary to send troops against them. The *zamíndárí* has been converted into a Government *táluk* with head-quarters at Narsapatam. The forests are of considerable value, but the attempt to conserve them has been abandoned, owing to there being no means for transporting the timber down the *gháts*. The *táluk* is also noted for the excellence of its oranges. In 1882 it contained 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 126.

Gollagudem.—Village on the Godávari river, in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Latitude, 17° 39′ N.; longitude, 81° 1′ 30″ E. Vessels navigating the Godávari take in and deliver cargo here, and travellers are permitted to occupy the small inspection bungalow belonging to the Public Works Department.

Golugonda.—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* GOLCONDA.

shared the fate of its predecessors; and at the time of the second
Muhammadan conquest, a Dom Rájá ruled Gonda with his capital at

Gonda.—District of Oudh in the Faizábád (Fyzábád) Division or Commissionership, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between lat. 26° 46′ and 27° 50′ N., and between long. 81° 35′ and 82° 48′ E. In shape, the District is an irregular oblong, slightly pinched in the middle, with an extreme length of 68 and an extreme breadth of 66 miles. Bounded on the north by the lower range of the Himálayas, separating it from Nepál; on the east by Basti District; on the south by Faizábád and Bara Banki, the Gogra river forming the boundary line; and on the west by Bahráich. Area, 2875 square miles; population (1881) 1,270,926.

Physical Aspects.—Gonda presents the aspect of a vast plain, with very slight undulations, studded with groves of mango trees; in parts,

the large *mahuá* trees, left standing on green pasture grounds where the other jungle has been cut down, give the country an English park-like appearance. During the fine clear months at the end of the rainy season, the range of the Himálayas, with the towering peak of Diwálagiri in the centre, forms a magnificent background to the north. The villages, except in the north, are very small, being generally divided into a number of minute hamlets, of which over thirty will sometimes be included in a single village boundary. This may be attributed partly to a comparative freedom from the disastrous clan wars which, in other parts of Oudh, drove the villagers to congregate for the sake of security, and partly to the fact that a large part of the District has been only lately reclaimed from jungle. Throughout the District, the surface consists of a rich alluvial deposit, which is divided naturally into three great belts, known as the *tarái* or swampy tract, the *uparhár* or uplands, and the *tarhár* or wet lowlands. (1) The first of these, the *tarái*, extends from the forests on the northern boundary, and reaches southwards to a line about 2 miles south of the Rápti, running through the towns of Balrámpur and Utraula. The soil is generally a heavy clay, except in places where the rain-swollen mountain torrents which flow into the Rápti and Burhí Rápti have flooded the neighbouring fields with a sandy deposit of debris from the hills. (2) The *uparhár* begins where the *tarái* ends, and extends south to a line drawn roughly east and west about 2 miles below Gonda town. The soil is generally a good *domat*, or mixture of clay and sand, with occasional patches of pure clay. (3) The *tarhár* or wet lowland reaches from the *uparhár* to the Gogra, which forms the southern boundary of the District. The soil is a light *domat*, with an occasional excess of sand. These three belts are marvellously fertile; and there is said to be hardly an acre of land in the District which would not eventually reward patient labour. The vast tracts of barren saline efflorescence (*reh*) so common

suffered considerably from the [illegible]

hand of man, and nothing but the great solidity of their walls

[illegible]

Suwáwan, Kuwána, Bisúhi, Chamnái, Manwar, Tírhi, Sarju, and Gogra, all flowing from north-west to south-east. The Gogra and Rápti are alone of any commercial importance, the first being navigable throughout the year, and the latter during the rainy months. The rivers in the centre of the District are mere shallow streams in the hot weather, fringed in most places with a jungle of young *sál* trees, mixed with *mahuá*, and ending at the water's edge with a cane-brake or line of *jámun* trees. Dangerous quicksands, covered with a green coating of short grass, are exceedingly common along the edge of the water. The whole District is studded with small shallow lakes, the water of which is largely used for irrigation, and on the margin of which grows a variety of wild rice (*tinni*), which furnishes an important article of food to the lower classes.

A strip of Government reserved forest runs along the foot of the hills, the most valuable trees being the *sál* (Shorea robusta), *dhám* (Conocarpus latifolia), ebony (Diospyros melanoxylum), and Acacia catechu. The wild animals consist of tigers, leopards, bears, wolves, antelope, deer of various kinds, and wild pigs, among large game. Snipe, jungle fowl, quail, peacock, partridges, ortolans, and pigeons, are the principal game birds. Fish are abundant in the rivers and lakes; crocodiles and dolphins are common.

History.—The early history of the District is centred in that of Sravasti, the modern SAHET MAHET, capital of the kingdom ruled over by Lava, the son of Ráma. After a period represented in the Vishnu Purána by fifty generations of kings, who ruled either at Sravasti or at Kapilavastu (Gorakhpur), the historical age commences (6th cent. B.C.) with King Prasenáditya, the contemporary of Buddha, and one of his early converts, who invited the Sage to Sravasti. During eight generations, Sravasti remained a principal centre of the Buddhist religion. The kingdom reached its culminating power in the reign of the Oudh king Vikramáditya, in the 2nd century A.D. This monarch was a bigoted Bráhmanist; and it was perhaps through civil wars between the followers of the rival religions that his kingdom so quickly collapsed. Within thirty years of his death, the sceptre had passed to the Gupta dynasty, and this thickly-populated seat of one of the most ancient kingdoms in India before long relapsed into jungle. The high road between the two capitals, Sravasti and Kapilavastu, was in the time of the Chinese pilgrims a dense forest infested with wild elephants.

When it next emerges into history, the District was the seat of a Jain kingdom, which, in the hands of Sohildeo, was powerful enough to exterminate the victorious forces of Sayyid Salár, the nephew of Mahmúd of Ghazni. It was not long, however, before this dynasty shared the fate of its predecessors; and at the time of the second Muhammadan conquest, a Dom Rájá ruled Gonda with his capital at Domangarh on the Rápti, in Gorakhpur. The most famous ruler of this race was Rájá Ugrasen, who had a fort at Dumriadih in Mahádewa *parganá*. The establishment of many villages in the south of the District is traced to grants of land, generally in favour of Tharus, Doms, Bhars, and Pásís, made by this Rájá. As no similar tradition exists to the north of the Kuwána, it may be conjectured that that tract was then mainly covered with forest. This low-caste Dom kingdom was subverted in the beginning of the 14th century by the Kshattriya clans of the Kalhánsis, Janwárs, and Bisens. The first-named clan occupied the country from Hisámpur in Bahráich far into the interior of Gorakhpur. It is related of them that their leader Saháj Singh, at the head of a small force, came from the Nar-

badá (Nerbudda) valley, with the army of one of the Tughlak emperors, and was commissioned by him to bring into obedience the country between the Gogra and the hills. Their first settlement was in the Koeli jungle, about 2 miles south-west of Kurása, which town subsequently gave its name to the chieftainship thus established. The thinly-populated country was distributed in *jágirs* of about 3½ *kos* each among the leading officers of the cavalry.

The ruling family came to a tragic end. Rájá Achal Náráyan Singh, having carried off the daughter of a Bráhman *zamíndár* by force, the latter sat down before the door of the oppressor's palace, and deliberately starved himself to death, after having pronounced the curse of extinction upon the Rájás, with the exception of the offspring of the youngest queen. The Bráhman's prediction was speedily fulfilled, the Rájá's palace and fortress being soon afterwards overwhelmed by the river Sarju, and himself and family drowned, save only the young queen, who was exempted from the Bráhman's avenging prediction. She afterwards gave birth to a son, whose descendants are the present Kalhánsi *zamíndárs* of Babhnipáir. The overthrow of the great Kalhánsi dynasty occurred in the latter part of the 15th century. Some time before this, however, the north of the District had been occupied by the Janwárs, whose forest kingdom comprised the whole sub-Himálayan *tarái;* and for long they divided with the Kalháns the chieftainship of the whole of the District. The overthrow of the Kalhánsi dynasty was followed by several years of anarchy. In the reign of Akbar, with the exception of Ikauná and Utraula, there were no powerful chieftains in this part of Oudh. The Kalhánsis of Babhnipáir and Guwárich were never of any considerable importance; and the rest of the District was covered with small semi-independent tribes of Bisens and Bandalghotis, and quasi-proprietary communities of Bráhmans. During the next period, the Bisens, who had been steadily rising in power for some time, consolidated the great Bisen *ráj* of Gonda, comprising a territory of 1000 square miles; the Janwárs sent out an independent branch between the Kuwána and the hills, and the large chieftainships of Balrámpur, Túlsipur, and Mánikpur were formed. For some time before the separation of Oudh from the Delhi Empire, and its erection into a separate Muhammadan kingdom under Saádat Khán, the trans-Gogra chiefs had enjoyed a virtual independence, waging wars among themselves, and exempt from any regular calls for the payment of tribute or revenue.

The new Muhammadan power was vigorously resisted by the Rájá of Gonda, who defeated and slew the first of the new Governors, Nawáb Aláwal Khán of Bahráich. A second force was sent against him, and he was for a time reduced to extremities; but the arrival of reinforcements compelled the Nawáb to raise the siege, and to be satisfied

with a partial submission, and a promise to pay a fixed tribute. For the next seventy years, a series of powerful Bisen chiefs retained a semi-independence, and engaged separately for the whole of their five ancestral *parganás* of Gonda, Pahárapur, Digsár, Mahádewa, and Nawábganj. It was not till the murder of Rájá Hindupat Singh and his entire family by his hereditary enemies, the Bráhman Pándes, that the Oudh Government, by obtaining possession of his successor, a youth named Gumán Singh, was enabled to break up the power of the Gonda principality, and to collect the revenue direct from the village head-men. Balrámpur and Túlsipur still held out for independence, and, though worsted in many fights, managed to retain their positions as chieftains, and were let off with a lump assessment on their whole estates, which left them considerable profits. The lords of Mankápur and Babhnipáir in the same way were allowed to collect the rents in their own villages, and pay the revenue in a lump sum to the Nawáb. Up to the commencement of the present century, there was nothing at all in Gonda District resembling the *táluks* in other parts of Oudh. The hereditary chieftains were each supreme within the territorial limits of his *ráj*.

As soon as Gonda and Utraula were broken up, and the revenue was realized by official collectors, *táluks* sprang into existence. The Nawábs found it convenient, and in some cases necessary, to let large numbers of villages to wealthy individuals as *tálukdárs*, or simple farmers of Government revenue. As a rule, these *tálukdárís* lasted but a short time, and their small collections of villages became absorbed by the Pándes, with whose power and wealth no one in the District could compete. The dispossessed Rájás of Utraula and Gonda attempted to acquire *táluks*, and to combine the character of revenue farmer with that of feudal lord. The Rájá of Utraula succeeded for a few years, but finally had to content himself with the few villages assigned for his support. The Gonda Bisens, however, got together the magnificent estate of Bisambharpur. The exactions of the Názims, or revenue deputies of the Lucknow Court, have been described in the account of BAHRAICH. The British annexation of Oudh brought relief to the people; but in making the land settlement, the first Deputy Commissioner of the District, Colonel Boileau, was killed by a notorious freebooter named Fazl Alí.

On the outbreak of the Mutiny, the Rájá of Gonda, after honourably escorting the Government treasure to Faizábád (Fyzábád), threw in his lot with the rebels, and joined the standard of the Begam of Oudh at Lucknow. The Rájá of Balrámpur remained loyal throughout the struggle. He steadily declined to recognise the rebel Government, received and protected Sir C. Wingfield, the Commissioner of Gonda and Bahráich, together with other English officers, in his fort, and after-

wards forwarded them safely, under a strong escort, to Gorakhpur. The Gonda Rájá, after the relief of Lucknow, fixed his camp at Lampti on the Chamnái river, with a force said to amount to 20,000 men, who were, however, dispirited at the English successes elsewhere. After only a feeble resistance, the broken remnants of his forces were swept across the Rápti and over the lower range of the Himálayas into Nepál. Most of the rebel *tálukdárs* accepted the amnesty, but neither the Rájá of Gonda nor the Rání of Túlsipur could be induced to come in (although the conduct of the former throughout the Mutiny had been free from overt crime); and their estates were accordingly confiscated and conferred as rewards upon the late Mahárájás Sir Dig Bijái Singh of Balrámpur, and Sir Mán Singh of Sháhganj.

Population.—The population of Gonda District, according to the Census of 1869, amounted to 602,862 males and 563,653 females, total 1,166,515 ; but upon the slightly increased area of the present District, was returned at 1,168,462, dwelling in 2834 villages or towns. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 1,270,926, showing an increase of 102,464, or nearly 10 per cent., in the thirteen years. The details of the Census are as follow: Area of District, 2875 square miles; towns and villages, 2790; houses, 203,274. Total population, 1,270,926, namely, males 650,771, and females 620,155. Average density of population, 442 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·97; persons per village, 445; houses per square mile, 70·6; persons per house, 6·2. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 1,102,193, or 86·7 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 168,546, or 13·3 per cent. Sikhs numbered 28, and Christians 159.

The Bráhmans are the most numerous caste, numbering 213,024, or 16·7 per cent. of the total population. They are almost all of the Sarwáriá sept, with a slight sprinkling of Gaurs, Kanaujias, and Sakaldwipis. The Gonda Bráhmans have long been noted for their military spirit; and they formed one of the most important elements in the forces of the great Bisen Rájás. With the exception of the Patháns of Utraula, the ruling classes are everywhere Kshattriyas, of which the principal families are the Kalháns of Babhnipáir and Chhedwárá, the Bisens of Gonda and Mánkápur, the Bandalghotis of Mánkápur and Nawábganj, the Janwárs of Balrámpur, and the Goráha Bisens of Mahádewa. These Rájput castes number 53,027. The Káyasths, who largely make up the official element in the population, number 18,287; and the Baniyás, or trading caste, 28,674. The great cultivating castes are the Ahírs, 128,439; Korís, 124,252; Kurmís, 102,736; and Kachhís, 41,934. The Kahárs, mostly servants and palanquin-bearers, number 47,573. The other principal Hindu castes—artisans, traders, labourers, etc.—are as follow, arranged numeri-

cally:—Chamárs, 33,950; Barhais, 21,574; Telís, 20,503; Dhobís, 18,984; Loniás, 17,576; Gadárías, 16,562; Nais, 16,022; Bhurjís, 14,852; Kalwárs, 14,183; Kumbhárs, 13,980; Tambulís, 13,547; and Lohárs, 11,814. The remnants of aboriginal tribes comprise the Bhars (8834), Doms (647), Pásís (32,477), Khatiks (8482), Náts, Tharus, and Arakhs, the three last not being shown separately in the District Census. Of these, the first two are the pioneers of cultivation. Settling along the edge of the jungle, they clear the trees and prepare the land for tillage, only to leave it, when the task is accomplished, to the steadier industry of the Kurmí or the Ahír. The Barwárs are a predatory tribe of Hindus, who spread over the country in gangs of 40 or 50; they have no scruple in robbing temples, but will not steal cattle, or even commit thefts, within Gonda District. The Muhammadans are most influential, and most numerous in proportion to the Hindus, in the old Pathán estate of Utraula, where they form the majority of the village proprietors; as common cultivators they are very thick all over the north of the District. Their religion is strongly intermingled with Hinduism, and the services of the Bráhman astrologer are held in high estimation by high and low.

Five towns in the District contain a population exceeding 5000—namely, GONDA, population 13,743; BALRAMPUR, 12,811; NAWABGANJ, 8373; COLONELGANJ, 5904; and UTRAULA, 5825—all of which see separately. The different villages and townships are thus classified:—843 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 1105 from 200 to 500; 627 from 500 to 1000; 170 from 1000 to 2000; 28 from 2000 to 3000; 12 from 3000 to 5000; and 5 upwards of 5000 inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the population into the following six groups:—Class (1) Professional, including Government servants, civil and military, and the learned professions, 6883; (2) domestic servants and lodging-house keepers, 1675; (3) commercial, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 5159; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 341,994; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 38,608; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 11,693 general labourers, and 244,759 male children and persons of no specified occupation), 256,452. The principal places of pilgrimage are the temple of Pateswari Debi at DEBI PATAN, the *thákurdwára* of the new Vaishnava sect at CHHIPIA, and the temples of Baleswarnáth Mahádeo at Mahádewa, Karnanáth Mahádeo at Machhligáon, Bijleswarí Debi at Balrámpur, and Pacharanáth and Pritwináth at Khargupur.

Agriculture.—Rice, wheat, and barley are the chief agricultural staples, comprising more than one-half the total cultivated area of the District. There are three harvests—the *kharíf*, the *henwát*, and the *rabí*—of which the relative importance varies in different parts of the District. In the centre table-land the *rabí*, and in the north the

henwát, are most depended upon. In the south, the *kharíf*, when the rains are moderate, yields a magnificent crop of Indian corn; and excessive rains, while they are fatal to that particular crop, leave a fair crop of rice, and secure an abundant wheat harvest for the *rabí*. Ploughing for the *kharíf* begins at the end of May, and continues throughout June; the seed is sown in the beginning of July, and cutting commences in September, or, in the case of rice, even earlier. By the middle of October, all the autumn crops are off the ground. Land for the *henwát* or Christmas crop is ploughed at the commencement of the rains, and the sowing continues during the growth of the *kharíf*. In the case of transplanted rice (*jarhan*), the planting out is done at the beginning of August, and the cutting continues throughout November. In the middle of December, the cutting of the oil-seeds commences, and lasts till the first week of January. Preparations for the next year's spring crop commence before the rains set in; and in the case of wheat, the first ploughing generally takes place in June. At the end of August the field receives two or three more ploughings, and a last ploughing in September. Sowing takes place in October and November, and the crop is cut early in March. April is occupied in threshing and winnowing.

The total cultivated area of the District is returned at 1,135,002 acres, but including land bearing two crops, 1,398,856 acres are cultivated yearly. The area under the seven principal crops in 1882 was as follows:—Rice, 352,200 acres; wheat, 266,877; barley, 41,246; *joár*, 127,123; *arhár*, 4649; *kodo*, 16,078; *alsi*, 26,973 acres. Irrigation is largely practised, the area watered in 1881 being returned at 231,681 acres, of which 128,452 acres were watered from tanks, 9632 from rivers, and 93,597 from wells. Prices of food-grains do not range quite so high in Gonda as in other Districts; but they are higher than might be expected from the scanty population, owing mainly to the great facilities for export afforded by the Gogra. Prices have risen considerably of late years. Between the ten years 1861–70, the rates for unhusked rice rose from 2s. 2d. to 3s. 6½d. a cwt.; common husked rice from 4s. 2d. to 6s. 7d.; wheat, from 3s. 3d. to 5s. 9d.; barley, from 1s. 11d. to 4s. 7d.; *bájra*, from 3s. 9d. to 4s. 7d.; *joár*, from 1s. 11d. to 3s. 10d.; gram, from 2s. 6d. to 4s. 2d.; *arhár*, from 4s. 2d. to 5s. 6d.; *urid*, from 3s. 9d. to 8s. 6d.; *múg*, from 5s. 9d. to 7s. 6d.; *musuri*, from 2s. 3d. to 4s. 7d. a cwt. Prices, however, ranged unusually high in 1870, as the District had not recovered from the effects of the scarcity in the previous year. Prices were returned as follows in 1883:—Wheat, from 4s. 10d. to 5s. 4d. per cwt.; rice, from 6s. 3d. to 6s. 7d. per cwt.; and gram, from 3s. 6d. to 3s. 10d. per cwt. The famine of 1874 was severely felt, and Government relief works on a large scale were undertaken.

Gonda is pre-eminently a District of large landed proprietors; 20

tálukdárs were returned in 1882 as in possession of estates covering 1,280,646 acres, and including 1885 whole villages and 242 shares; 950 villages or shares are held on ordinary tenure by small proprietors. The principal estates are those of the late Mahárájá of Balrámpur, with 538,678 acres; Rájá Krishna Datt Rám Pánde, 201,450 acres; and the late Mahárájá Mán Singh, 201,960 acres. The *táluks* are assessed at a total Government revenue of £127,726, or an average of 1s. 10½d. per acre over the entire area; while the small proprietors are assessed at £42,212, on a total area of 348,996 acres, or an average of 2s. 6d. per acre. The apparent advantage on the side of the *tálukdárs* is due to the fact that the late Mahárájá of Balrámpur's estate consists of the whole of the thinly-populated and poorly-cultivated plains of Túlsipur; and also one-tenth of the entire assessment of Balrámpur has been remitted as a reward for loyal services. As a rule, consideration has been had for coparcenary bodies of village proprietors, who have been assessed lower in proportion to the area of cultivated land in their possession than the large individual landholders. The cultivating classes are well-to-do and independent; and, owing to the thinness of its population and the considerable area of fertile waste land, Gonda enjoys almost complete freedom from the worst forms of poverty. The system of cultivating land by means of Sáwaks or bondsmen, as described in BAHRAICH DISTRICT, is also common here.

Communications, Trade, Commerce, etc.—The three principal lines of road are—from Faizábád (Fyzábád) to Gonda town, 28 miles; from Nawábganj to Utraula, 36 miles; and from Nawábganj to Colonelganj, 35 miles. The minor roads are—Gonda to Begamganj, 16 miles; Gonda to Bahráich, 16 miles; Gonda to Utraula, 36 miles; Gonda to Colonelganj, 15 miles; Gonda to Balrámpur, 28 miles; Colonelganj to Mahárájganj, 28 miles; Colonelganj to Bahráich, 28 miles; Utraula to Túlsipur, 16 miles; Khargupur to Chaudhári Dih, 28 miles; Balrámpur to Ikauna, 14 miles. Rice and food-grains are the chief exports; and cotton, European piece-goods, and salt the principal imports.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by 2 European Assistants, and 1 or more extra-Assistants. The courts number 15 magisterial and 22 revenue and civil. The total imperial revenue of Gonda in 1871–72 amounted to £138,795, of which £122,234 was derived from the land. The imperial expenditure in the same year amounted to £32,101, of which, however, one-half, or £15,385, was on account of the Settlement Department, which has now ceased its operations. In 1875–76, the revenue amounted to £157,349, of which the land contributed £135,509; the expenditure in that year amounted to £15,810. By 1880 the total revenue had increased to £181,103, and the land revenue to £150,936; expenditure, £16,720. The regular police force in 1880

consisted of 594 officers and men, including 120 municipal, maintained at a cost of £7253, of which £6624 was defrayed by Government; the village watch numbered 3271 men, costing £11,898 from local sources. Female infanticide is common in Aija and Colonelganj *thánás*. Efforts have been made to stamp out this crime; but in 1874, in 52 'proclaimed' villages, the proportion of females to every 100 males was only 72. Education is still in its infancy, but village schools are now springing up in all directions. In 1880-81 there were 137 schools under Government inspection, attended by 4361 pupils. The Census Report, however, returned only 3900 boys and 72 girls as under instruction in 1881.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall of the District during the fourteen years ending 1881 was 42·99 inches; the highest fall in any one year was 68·7 inches in 1871, the lowest was 6·10 inches in 1874. The rainfall in 1881 was 54·98 inches, or 11·99 inches above the average. The heavy rains commence early in June, and continue, with slight interruptions, to the end of September or middle of October. Showers fall in every month of the year, and particularly in February and March. Owing to the proximity of the hills, the rains are more assured, and less subject to violent variations than in more southerly Districts. The average monthly temperature for the three years ending 1875 is thus returned—January 62° F., February 64°, March 75°, April 82°, May 91°, June 87°, July 87°, August 86°, September 81°, October 80°, November 70°, December 64°; yearly average, 77·5° F. The highest recorded range of the thermometer is 106°, lowest 48° F. Fever is very prevalent in the *tarái parganá* of Túlsipur during the drying up of the rains, and is also common throughout the District. The other principal diseases are scurvy, cholera, diarrhœa, and goitre. [For further information regarding Gonda District, see the *Oudh Gazetteer* (Oudh Government Press, Lucknow 1877), vol. i. pp. 497-572; *Settlement Report of Gonda District* by W. C. Benett, Esq., C.S., dated 30th April 1877; the *North-Western Provinces and Oudh Census Report* for 1881; and the *North-Western Provinces and Oudh Provincial and Departmental Administration Reports*, 1881 to 1883.]

Gonda.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bahráich and Balrámpur *tahsíls*, on the east by Utraula *tahsíl*, on the south by Tarabganj *tahsíl*, and on the west by Hisámpur and Bahráich *tahsíls*. Area, 632 square miles, of which 392 are cultivated; population (1869) 247,107; (1881) 351,185, namely, Hindus, 308,527; Musalmáns, 42,583; 'others,' 70. Males numbered 178,938, and females 172,247; number of villages or towns, 780; average density of population, 571 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the two *parganás* of Gonda and Pahárapur.

Gonda.—*Parganá* in Gonda *tahsíl* and District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by the Kuwána river, which divides it from Balrámpur and Utraula *parganás;* on the east by Sadullánagar and Mánikpur; on the south by Mahádewa, Digsár, Guwárich, and Pahárapur *parganás;* and on the west by Bahráich District. The history of the *parganá* is identical with that of the District (*vide supra*). In appearance the *parganá* is a large, fairly well-wooded plain, with hardly perceptible undulations. In the north are some rather extensive *sál* jungles, but the trees are not of sufficient size to be of much value. Excepting these jungle tracts, the whole *parganá* is under high cultivation, and produces luxuriant crops of wheat, rice, sugar, gram, Indian corn, and barley. Groves of *mahuá* trees are dotted all over the *parganá*. The soil is generally a light and fertile loam. Water is obtainable at a depth of from 15 to 20 feet, and irrigation is much practised. Area, 509 square miles, of which 307 square miles, or 196,595 acres, are under cultivation; 111,474 acres yield spring, and 128,410 acres autumn crops; while 43,289 acres bear a double harvest. At the time of British annexation, a summary investigation was made into the assets of the *parganá;* and on the principle of taking half as the Government share, the land revenue was fixed at £25,500. A revised assessment was made in 1869–70, when a thirty years' settlement was effected at an assessment of £42,404, equal to an average of 4s. 2⅛d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 7½d. per acre of total area. This increase of upwards of 66 per cent. probably represents, with some approach to accuracy, the rapid extension of cultivation during fifteen years of undisturbed peace.

Of the 652 villages comprising the *parganá*, 476, paying a revenue of £33,531, are held by *tálukdárs;* and 176, paying a revenue of £8893, are held by independent *zamíndárs*. Population (1881), Hindus 242,852, and Muhammadans 32,995—total, 275,907, namely, 140,774 males and 135,133 females; average density of population, 524 per square mile. The Bráhmans are by far the most numerous caste, numbering 71,163, or nearly one-fourth of the entire population. They belong, almost without exception, to the great Sarwáriá sept, and retain no tradition of their first settlement in the District, of which it is probable that they are among the most ancient inhabitants. Next to the Bráhmans in point of number come the low-caste Korís (28,157), Kurmís (26,022), and Ahírs (18,450). The semi-monastic order of Gosáins numbers 2528 members, some of whom are wealthy landed proprietors. The most peculiar tribe in the *parganá* are the Barwárs, who are said to have migrated from Basti about 200 years ago. Their distinguishing profession is theft, which they carry on with great success, though the rules of their religion sternly restrict their operations to the period between sunrise and sunset. Any one stealing

by night is at once turned out of caste. The Barwárs go on distant plundering expeditions in parties of two or three, and on their return the proceeds are impartially divided, a share being set apart to buy sacrificial offerings of goats and ardent spirits to Devi, and a percentage being paid to the *zamíndár* of the village. A police Census returns the number of this caste at 1251 of all ages and sexes in this *parganá*. It is proposed to bring them under the Criminal Tribes Act. The principal markets are at Gonda town, Jigna, Dhángpur, Dubha, Rájgarh, and Khargupur. Principal exports, wheat and rice; imports insignificant, consisting of salt, brass vessels, and English cotton cloth. Metalled road from Gonda town to Faizábád (Fyzábád), and several other unmetalled roads and cart tracks.

Gonda.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Gonda District, Oudh; situated 28 miles north-north-west of Faizábád (Fyzábád). Lat. 27° 7′ 30″ N., long. 82° E. The site on which the town now stands was originally a jungle on the estate of the Rájás of Kurása, in the centre of which was a cattle-fold (Gontha or Gothám) where the Ahírs enclosed their cattle at night as a protection against wild beasts, from which the town derived its name. Rájá Mán Singh of Kurása built a palace and fortress here, and it has since been the residence of his successors, under whom the town gradually grew up. As mentioned in the account of GONDA DISTRICT, the last Rájá of Gonda at the time of the Mutiny threw in his cause with the rebels, and his large estates were confiscated. The population of the town and civil station in 1881 was returned at 13,743, namely, 7723 males and 6020 females. Hindus numbered 8954; Muhammadans, 4692; Christians, 69; and 'others,' 28. Area of town site, 203 acres. The place is not now noted for any manufacture, but in the days of native rule was celebrated for its shields, which were in great request. It is not a commercial centre, nor is it of any religious importance to either Hindus or Muhammadans.

The principal buildings in the native town are—2 *thákurdwárás*; the palace, which for some hundreds of years formed the residence of the Gonda Rájás, but is now falling into decay; a handsome *sarái* or rest-house; and a large masonry tank known as the Rádhákund. North-west of the native town, and between it and the civil station, are the civil dispensary and District school, two fine buildings. Beyond these is a large handsome artificial lake, constructed by Rájá Seo Prasád, and surrounded by groves of tall mango trees and ornamental grounds. On the bank of the lake is a Literary Institute, known as the Anjumán-i-rifah, supported by European and native subscribers, and containing a large library. Beyond the Ságar or lake are the civil lines, and what were formerly the cantonments. The troops were withdrawn in 1863; and the only traces of the military occupation of this quarter now left are the barracks, which up till recently were occupied

as the civil court buildings, a church which has been reduced in size to suit the requirements of the small civil station, a burial-ground, racquet court, and a Government garden, which is carefully kept up, and forms one of the finest pleasure-grounds in Oudh. On what was the parade grounds the handsome new court-house now stands, and south of it the jail. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £936; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Gonda.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; 2 miles from Belá, on the road from Allahábád to Faizábád (Fyzábád). Population (1881) 1752 Hindus, 672 Muhammadans—total, 2424. Said to have been founded by the Gonds. Hindu temple, Government school. Large *bázár*, with annual sales amounting to about £1500. Two fairs are held annually in honour of the tutelary goddess, Asht Bhují Devi, each attended by about 2500 people.

Gondal.—Native State in Halár *plánt*, Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát (Guzerat), Bombay Presidency. Area, 687 square miles; 174 villages; population (1881) 135,604. Hindus numbered 105,329; Muhammadans, 24,652; and 'others,' 5623. Estimated gross revenue, as shown in the Administration Report of 1880–81, £125,815. With the exception of the Osham Hills, the country is generally flat. The soil is chiefly black. Several small streams intersect the State, the largest, the Bhádar, being navigable by small boats during the rains. For purposes of irrigation, water is drawn in leather bags from wells and rivers by means of bullocks. The climate is good. Products—cotton and grain. Manufactures—cotton cloth, and silver and gold cord. There are 43 miles of first-class metalled road, and 44 miles of unmetalled road between Gondal and Rájkot; for the rest, internal communication is carried on by the ordinary country tracks. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the vigour and success with which its public works have been prosecuted. The produce is exported from Mángrol, Veráwal, and Joriá. There are 38 schools, with 2556 pupils. Gondal ranks as a second-class State among the many States in Káthiáwár. The ruler entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. He is a Hindu, a Rájput by caste, of the Járejá family. The name of the present (1883) chief is Bhagwatsinghjí Sagrámjí, and his title Thákur Sáhib. He was educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot, and afterwards travelled in Europe. The State of Gondal pays a tribute of £11,072 in all to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption: the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The chief has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences. His military force consists of 198 cavalry, and 659 infantry and police, with 16 cannon. No transit dues are levied in the State.

Gondal.—Capital of Gondal State, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 57′ 30″ N., long. 70° 53′ E.; population (1881) 13,523. Hindus numbered 7893; Muhammadans, 3562; Jains, 2068. Gondal is connected with Rájkot, Jetpur, Junágarh, Dhoráji Upleta, and Mánikwara by good roads. It is in contemplation to connect it with Sultánpur Road railway station by a made road. The town is fortified; contains a hospital, dispensary, telegraph office, and post-office.

Gond-umri.—Estate in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; 5 to 10 miles north-east of Sángarhi; containing 10 small villages, the largest of which is Gond-umri. Area, 17,715 acres, of which only 2862 are cultivated; population (1881) 2722, chiefly Gonds and Dhers. The chief is a Bráhman.

Gondwána.—Tract of country, Central Provinces; so called from the aboriginal tribe of Gonds who principally inhabit it.—*See* CENTRAL PROVINCES.

Gonikoppal.—Township in Coorg, known as the 'Bamboo,' on the Mysore-Cannanore Road. Pop. (1881) 328; 10 miles from Verajeudrapett. Head-quarters of the *Párpattigár* of the Betiethnád. Large weekly market on Sundays, attended by about 5000 coolies from the neighbouring coffee estates.

Goomsar.—*Táluk* and town, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. —*See* GUMSAR.

Goona (*Gúna*).—District of Gwalior State, Central India; situated between latitudes 24° 5′ and 25° 7′ N., and longitudes 76° 53′ and 77° 55′ E., with an area of 3678 square miles, and a population (1881) of 249,006. Length about 72 miles, with a varying breadth of from 50 to 70 miles. Bounded on the north by the *parganá* of Sháhábád, the Jháláwár State, and the Kailáras District of Sindhia's territory; on the east by the Chanderi District of Gwalior; on the south by the Sironj territory of Tonk, and Rájgarh State; and on the west by the State of Jháláwár, and the Chhabra *parganá* of Tonk.

The District comprises seven chiefships, feudatories of Sindhia, but mediatized or guaranteed by the British Government, namely, BHADAURA, RAGUGARH, GARHA, DHANAODAH, UMRI, PARON, and SIRSI; and seven *parganás* of Sindhia, namely, Bajrangarh, Narod, Pachar, Chachora, Kumráj, Miána, and Aron. The general elevation of the tract is about 1800 feet, and it may be described as an elevated plateau drained by the tributaries of the Betwá river on the east, the river Sind in the centre, and the Parbatí on the west. In the east and west the country is flat, well populated and cultivated; but to the north and south it is much broken by hills, the range that runs through the District forming a continuation of the *gháts* on the left bank of the Kúnú river. The forests of the hills yield

much timber and bamboo; and in some parts of the district a rich earthy iron-ore is extracted, which is roughly smelted and worked up into farming implements for local use. The wild animals consist of tigers, leopards, hyænas, wolves, antelope and deer of various kinds, and wild pigs. The population comprises Rájputs, Kherárs, Mínás, Ahírs, Káchhis, Chamárs, and Bhíls, of whom the Ahírs are the most numerous. The Chauhán Rájputs of this tract have for centuries been distinguished by the name of Kíchi, from which the name of Kíchiwára is applied to this part of the Gwalior territory. The only towns of any importance are GUNA, BAJRANGARH, and RAGHUGARH.

The crops grown are—wheat, barley, Indian corn, *joár*, several pulses and fibres, sugar-cane, and opium. The land is cultivated by *zamíndárs* who are tenants-at-will, and, as a class, poor and generally in the hands of money-lenders. In Sindhia's seven *parganás* of the District, a fixed settlement for ten years is made; but in the lands of the seven chiefships, his feudatories, the rental is liable to change yearly. The prevailing prices of food-grains and other articles in the District in 1881 were—for wheat, 54 lbs. per rupee (2s.); for grain, 68 lbs.; for barley, 40 lbs.; for *joár*, 72 lbs.; for Indian corn, 89 lbs.; for *jaggery*, or molasses, 16 lbs.; and for salt, 20 lbs. The district is not much subject to natural calamities, but the absence of rain in July or October causes an occasional drought. In 1868, when scarcely any rain fell, higher prices prevailed than had been known in the previous three decades. No canals or other irrigating works exist, as the rivers run dry periodically; in a few places only has the country been embanked for tanks. The chief road through the District is that which runs from Agra to Indore. Several village roads of minor importance, and under local management, connect the larger places of the District with the outlying towns.

Goona (*Gúna*).—Town in Gwalior State, and head-quarters of the Gúna District of Gwalior, Central India. Latitude 24° 40′ N., longitude 77° 20′ E. Situated on the Agra and Indore main road, 202 miles south of Agra, and 135 miles south-east of Gwalior. Population (1881) 3700. Gúna is also a British cantonment, at which a regiment of Central India Horse is stationed, the officer commanding being *ex officio* Political Assistant in charge of the Gúna Sub-Agency, and also holding political and magisterial charge of the District and cantonment. Before the Mutiny a large force of the Gwalior cavalry contingent used to be quartered here. A fair is held annually in November, to which large crowds from the neighbourhood resort, and much traffic is carried on. There is a school, with 80 pupils, which is unaided by Government, being maintained by contributions from the neighbouring chiefs, and by local funds to the extent of £270 yearly. Five miles south of Gúna lies the large town of Bajrangarh,

the head-quarters of the governor of the District, under whom is a detachment of 4 companies of Sindhia's infantry.

Gooty (*Gúti*).—*Táluk* of Anantapur District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1010 square miles, with 3 towns and 150 villages. Houses, 21,577. Population (1881) 110,597, namely, 56,400 males and 54,197 females. Hindus numbered 100,160; Muhammadans, 9995; Christians, 406; and 'others,' 36. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 10; village watch, 77 men. Land revenue, £18,322.

Gooty (*Gúti*).—Town in Anantapur District, Madras Presidency; 32 miles from Anantapur town. Latitude 15° 6′ 53″ N., longitude 77° 41′ 32″ E.; containing (1881) 1373 houses and 5373 inhabitants, of whom 3749 were Hindus, 1587 Muhammadans, and 37 Christians. Head-quarters of a Deputy Collector and Magistrate, and of a District *munsif* or civil judge; post and telegraph offices; sub-jail; and important railway station, 257 miles from Madras.

The fort of Gooty, built in the early part of the 16th century, was a place of immense strength. It was the stronghold of the great Maráthá guerilla chief, Morári Ráo, who joined Clive in 1751 on the relief of Arcot. Originally belonging to a dependant of the Vijayanagar family, it formed one of the conquests of Mír Jumlá, the Golconda minister, and a famous general of the Mughal Empire. Gooty was afterwards held by the Patháns of Cuddapah and Sawanúr, from whom it was wrested in 1714 by the Gauripur family of Maráthás, the most distinguished of whom obtained, in 1744, the Nizám's recognition of his territory as a Maráthá State. In 1776, Haidar Alí besieged the town, which was forced to capitulate after a siege of four months, the water-supply being exhausted. Haidar used this fortress as his head-quarters in several expeditions against the neighbouring *pálegárs*. Gooty was captured by the British in the Mysore campaign of 1799.

Wilks describes the fort as follows:—'The fort is composed of a number of strong works, occupying the summits of a circular cluster of rocky hills, connected with each other, and enclosing a level space which forms the site of the town. The town is approached from the plain by a single fortified gateway on the south-west, and by two small footpaths across the lower hills, communicating through small sally-ports. An immense smooth rock, rising from the northern limit of the circle, and fortified by gradations surmounted by 14 gateways, overlooks and commands the whole of the other works, and forms a citadel which famine or treachery alone can reduce. The rock is composed of granite, in which red felspar prevails. Its extreme height above the sea has been ascertained to be 2171 feet, but notwithstanding this, the heat in April and May is intense. Its height above the plain is 989

feet. On the summit of the hill are several wells and reservoirs for water, and various buildings where State prisoners were confined.'

On one of the bastions overlooking a precipice of about 300 feet, is a small building, called Morári Ráo's seat. Here the Maráthá chieftain was wont to sit and play chess, watching at the same time all that was going on in the town below, or as a spectator of prisoners being hurled from the top of an adjoining precipice and dashed to pieces on the rocks. Besides the fort, the most interesting features in Gooty are the choultry, tomb, and memorial well of Sir Thomas Munro, who died at Pattikonda in 1827.

Gopálganj.—Town and police station in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the Madhumatí river, in lat. 23° 0′ 22″ N., long. 89° 52′ E.; population (1881) 3402. Famous for jute, rice, salt, and clarified butter. Formerly noted for the manufacture of fine *sitálpati* mats, but only a few of second-rate quality are now made. An evangelical mission was established here in 1874, which is doing good work among the Chandál inhabitants.

Gopálgarh.—Town in Bhartpur State, Rájputána. Situated 40 miles north-west of Muttra, on the route from Muttra to Firozpur in the Gurgáon District. Distance from Firozpur, 12 miles. Dispensary.

Gopálnagar.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 3′ 50″ N., long. 88° 48′ 40″ E. One of the principal seats of commerce in the District, trade being chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets. The trade, however, has somewhat decreased of late years.

Gopálpur (*Gopaulpore*).—Town and seaport in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 19° 21′ 5″ N., longitude 85° 1′ E.; distant 9 miles south-east of Berhampur, the chief town of the District, of which it forms the chief seaport, and 13 miles from Ganjám. A place of rapidly increasing importance. Population (1881) 2675, namely, 2504 Hindus, 24 Muhammadans, and 147 Christians. It has a considerable export trade with Europe in grain, myrobalans, hemp, horns, hides, and seeds. The chief imports are cotton piece-goods, betel-nuts, and gunny-bags. French and English vessels load here. It is also a port of call for coasting steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company, as well as for those of private firms. The number of registered boats in 1882 was 106. Value of exports (1880–81), £307,785; imports, £132,535. The exports to foreign countries in 1883–84 were valued at £177,826; to British ports in other Presidencies, £147,827; to British ports within the Presidency, £72,801; and to Indian ports not British, £1205: total exports (1883–84), £399,659. Value of customs duty collected:—in 1879, £2295; in 1883–84, £8485. The port light (fixed white) is displayed at an elevation of 80 feet, and is visible from 8 to 10 miles at sea; good anchorage (sand and mud) is found in 8 to 9 fathoms

about 1½ mile off the shore. Post-office; staging bungalow and telegraph office.

Gopálswámi-betta (*'Hill of the shepherd god, Vishnu'*).—Isolated peak, forming a spur of the Western Gháts, in Mysore district, Mysore State; about 4500 feet above sea-level. Latitude 11° 43′ 20″ N., longitude 76° 37′ 45″ E. Crowned with fortifications, said to have been erected by the Danáyak brothers in the 12th century. On the summit stands a temple of Vishnu, attended by two Bráhmans, at which a car festival is held annually.

Gopámau.—*Parganá* in Hardoi *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Mansurnagar and Piháni *parganás;* on the east by the Gúmti river, separating it from Chandra, Misrikh, and Aurangábád *parganás;* on the south by Sandíla and Bálamau *parganás;* and on the west by Bangar, Báwan, and Sára *parganás*, the Sái river marking the boundary for a considerable distance.

The earliest traditions show the Thatherás in possession of this tract, which they still held in 1033 at the time of Sayyid Sálar's invasion. A great battle was fought near Gopámau between the Musalmáns and the Thatherás, in which the former were successful; but two years afterwards, on the defeat of Sayyid Sálar at Bahráich, his army of occupation at Gopámau was overpowered and put to the sword. The Thatherás remained masters for some time, when they were ousted by an Ahban chief, named Gopi or Gopál Singh, who founded the present town of GOPAMAU. On the overthrow of the Hindu kingdoms of Delhi and Kanauj by Shahab-ud-dín in 1193 and 1194, the several Kshattriya clans poured into the trans-Ganges Districts, and effected fresh settlements. The Shaikhs obtained a footing in the *parganá* in Humáyun's reign, when two Musalmáns were appointed *kázís* of Gopámau; and a descendant still holds the Kasmandi estate. The *parganá* forms the watershed of the Gumti and Sái rivers. Round Tandiáon, in the heart of the *parganá*, is all that now remains of the great Bangar jungle, which up to the British annexation was a robber haunt, which all the efforts of the Oudh troops could not reduce to order.

Area, 328 square miles, of which 172 are cultivated. Staple products—barley, *bájrá*, and wheat, which occupy three-fifths of the cultivated area. Government land revenue, £17,544; average incidence, 3s. 3d. per acre of cultivated area; and 1s. 8d. per acre of total area. Of the 240 villages constituting the *parganá*, 145 are owned by Rájputs, the Ahbans slightly predominating; Káyasths hold 36½ villages; Bráhmans, 2½; and grantees, 10. Muhammadans possess 46 villages. Only 28½ villages are held under *tálukdárí* tenure, 111½ are *zamíndárí*, 95 *pattidárí*, and 5 *bhayáchára*. Population (1872) 112,006; (1881) 130,786, namely, 70,269 males and 60,517 females.

The most numerous castes are Chamárs and Pásís, who form a third of the entire population. Bráhmans and Rájputs form each about a tenth. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs along the western side of the *parganá*; the Gumti in the east provides water communication; and the Sítápur and Mehndighát road runs along the south. In the interior, the only road is the Hardoi and Sítápur road, with a branch northward to Gopámau, Majhia, and Piháni. Five schools, of which two are for girls.

Gopámau.—Principal town in Gopámau *parganá*, Hardoi District, Oudh; 2 miles west of the Gúmti river, 14 miles north-east of Hardoi town, and 20 west of Sítápur. Lat. 27° 32′ N., long. 80° 19′ 40″ E. The town is said to have been founded in the 11th century by an Ahban chief named Rájá Gopi, who drove out the Thatherás from what was then a mere clearing in the forest. The Muhammadan population dates from the invasion of Oudh by Sayyid Sálar (1033); since which date it has always been an important seat of Musalmán influence. The chief development of the town took place in the reign of Humáyun, who first appointed a *chaudhári* and *kázi* for the *parganá*, with their head-quarters in the town. Till 1801, when Saádat Alí removed the head-quarters of the *parganá* to Tandiáon, Gopámau seems to have thriven. Many of its residents attained high posts under the Empire, and contributed to the wealth and importance of the town. Numerous mosques, wells, and large buildings attest its importance in the days of Musalmán supremacy. In 1881 the town contained a population of 3040 Muhammadans and 2334 Hindus—total, 5374. Area of town site, 159 acres. Two bi-weekly markets; Government school. The only manufacture is one peculiar to the place, the making of *arsis*, or thumb-mirrors of silver.

Gorá. — Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the river Rápti, 1 mile west of Barhaj. Lat. 26° 33′ N., long. 83° 50′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 8485, namely, Hindus, 7848; and Muhammadans, 637. Area of town site, 91 acres.

Gorábázár.—The southern suburb of Berhampur town, Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 5′ 15″ N., long. 88° 17′ 15″ E. The population consists chiefly of Musalmáns and Urdu-speaking immigrants from the north-west. An annual fair called the Chaltia *melá* is held here in honour of Raghunáth, attended by about 20,000 people.

Gorághát.—Ruined city in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 15′ N., long. 89° 20′ E. Once the capital of the eastern Mughal Government, with a revenue circle of 90 *lákhs* of rupees (£900,000). The capital was removed to Dacca by the Emperor Jahángír. The site of Gorághát is now a vast mass of ruins buried in dense jungle, on the west bank of the Karátoyá river.

Gorai.—River of Bengal.—*See* GARAL.

Gorakhpur.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 5′ 15″ and 27° 28′ 45″ N. lat., and between 83° 7′ and 84° 29′ E. long. Gorakhpur is a District in the Benares Division. It is bounded on the north by the territory of Nepál, on the east by Champáran and Sáran, on the south by the river Gogra, and on the west by Basti and Faizábád (Fyzábád). Area, 4598 square miles; population (1881) 2,617,120 persons.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Gorakhpur lies immediately south of the lower Himálayan slopes, but itself forms a portion of the great alluvial plain derived from the detritus of the mountain region, and deposited by the mighty rivers which take their rise amid the snow-clad northern heights. No greater elevation than a few sandhills breaks the monotony of its level surface. It is, however, intersected by numerous rivers and streams, and dotted over with lakes and marshes. The water-supply is abundant, and the moisture of the soil gives a verdant appearance to the country, which contrasts strongly with the arid aspect of the Districts south of the Gogra. In the north and centre, extensive tracts of *sál* forest diversify the scene; the trees are not, as a rule, of any great size, but the density and extent of the woodland strike the eye of a visitor from the populous and highly-cultivated Districts farther south. Immediately below the first range of hills stretches the *tarái* or lowland, a tract of sub-montane character, with clear and rapid streams, flowing through a thickly-wooded forest region. Here and there, glades used for pasturage open out among the wilder portions, and the cultivated patches are generally devoted to the growth of rice. The inhabitants are either hillmen like the Gurkhás and Nepális, or else aboriginal Thárus, who alone can live in the *tarái* during the rains, when its pestilential climate drives away all other tribes. The snowy range can be distinctly seen from the frontier.

Moving southward, the forest disappears, and a well-tilled plain is entered, only broken by occasional woods or rare tracts of the saline waste known as *úsar*. In the south of the District, the general expanse of cultivation is diversified by shady mango groves, or intersected by frequent lakes. The west and south-west are low-lying plains, subject to extensive inundations. In seasons of heavy rain, the water collects in the valley of the Ami, and, joining the lakes to the east, forms an immense inland sea. Beyond the Rápti the ground rises slightly, but again sinks towards the south-east, and slopes away as it reaches the border of the District. The principal rivers are—the RAPTI, a tortuous torrent, with a very shifting channel; the GOGRA, a large river, with a volume of water here surpassing that of the Ganges, navigable by steamers during the rains, and never fordable in the driest weather; the GREAT GANDAK, a clear and rapid stream, full of cataracts and whirlpools, and navigable

with difficulty on account of its fierce current and sunken snags; the LITTLE GANDAK, the Kuána, the Rohin, the Ami, and the Gunghi. The principal lakes are the Rámgarh, Nandaur, Nawar, Bhenri, Chillua, and Amiyar Táls. The tiger is found in the north, and the jackal, wolf, fox, and wild boar throughout the District; deer are rare. Wild-fowl of all kinds abound on the larger lakes, which are also well stocked with fish. The latter afford a livelihood to numerous boatmen (*málás*), who rent a lake of the landholder and then fish it in concert.

History.—The tract of country north of the river Gogra and between Oudh and Behar, which now forms the Districts of Gorakhpur and Basti, was originally included in the ancient kingdom of Kosala, of which Ajodhya was the capital. It was visited by the deified hero Ráma, whose death may be placed at about 750 B.C. Gautama Buddha, the founder of the widespread religion which bears his name, was born at Kápila just beyond the border, and died at Kasia within this District. A colossal statue still marks the place of his decease. Gorakhpur thus became the head-quarters of the new creed, and was one of the first tracts to receive it. Tradition further recounts that a prince belonging to the Solar dynasty of Ajodhya attempted to found here a great city which should rival the glories of Kási (or Benares); but that when it was nearly completed, he was overwhelmed by an irruption of the Thárus and Bhars. These aboriginal and mixed races held all the country north-east of Oudh and the Ganges for a long period, and drove out the Aryans who had at first conquered them. Their re-appearance was apparently connected with the rise of the Buddhist faith. The Bhar chieftains seemed to have held the country at first independently, and afterwards as vassals of the Magadha Buddhists. On the fall of that dynasty, the Bhars regained their autonomy till about 550 A.D. From this time the Aryans began to recover their lost ground; and in 600 A.D., the Rahtors of Kanauj invaded the District, which they conquered up to the modern town of Gorakhpur. Hweng Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited this part of India about the year 630, notices the large number of monasteries and towers, the latter a monument of the continuous struggle between the aboriginal Bhars and their Aryan antagonists, the Rahtors.

About 900 A.D., the Domhatárs or military Bráhmans made their first appearance on the scene, and, with other tribes of mixed Bráhman and Rájput descent, began to push up from the south and to dispossess the Rahtor chiefs, whom they expelled from the town of Gorakhpur. In the 11th century, Bisen Sen of Nagar became the leading chief in this region; but the Bhars continued to hold the western tracts, until ousted by the Jaipur (Jeypore) Rájás in the time

of Akbar. Early in the 14th century, the Rájputs, expelled from the country farther west by the Muhammadans, began to enter this District. Dhúr Chánd established himself in Dhúriápár, and Chandra Sen in Satási. The latter murdered the Domhatár chief of Domangarh (the Gorakhpur fort), seized his stronghold, and established himself in the city. During the whole century, the Batwal and Bánsi Rájás carried on an incessant warfare, which desolated the whole country; and from 1350 to 1450 the Satási and the Majholi Rájás waged war without intermission. The present town of Gorakhpur was founded about 1400. A century later, the Majholi family held the south-east; the descendants of Dhúr Chánd reigned in the south-west; the Aonla and Satási dominions came next; while the extreme north-west belonged to the principality of Batwal. All these Rájás seem to have been quite independent of one another, and isolated from the outer world, as no bridges or roads attest any intercourse with the Districts to the south or east. Until the Mughal period, the Musalmáns do not appear to have crossed the Gogra; but in 1576, Akbar passed across it on his return from the successful expedition against Dáúd Khán of Bengal. The Emperor's general, Fidái Khán, defeated all the Rájás who opposed him, and occupied Gorakhpur. Bahádur Sháh visited the District for the sake of its sport during the lifetime of Aurangzeb; but until the establishment of the Nawáb Wazírs of Oudh at Lucknow in 1721, the Musalmáns interfered very little with Gorakhpur, and allowed it to be controlled entirely by the native Rájás.

After Saádat Alí's accession, however, a firmer grasp of the District was taken; and in 1750, a large army under Alí Kásim Khán reduced it completely to submission. Even then the Muhammadan governor exercised no real power, and collected what revenue he could obtain through the Rájás, who carried on war amongst themselves as they pleased. At the middle of the 18th century, the Banjáras had become a perfect scourge to the District. They first appeared from the west about 1725; but thirty years later, united under able leaders, they were formidable enough to contend with chiefs like the Rájá of Bánsi. They kept the eastern *parganás* in a constant state of terror, and weakened the power of the Rájás so greatly that the latter could no longer resist the fiscal exactions of the Oudh officials, who plundered and ravaged the country to an extent which they had never ventured to attempt in its more independent days. After the battle of Baxar in 1764, a British officer received command of the Nawáb's troops, and was instructed to collect the taxes of Gorakhpur; but all he could do was to sub-let the collection to native revenue farmers, who rack-rented the cultivators in a merciless manner. The District formed part of the territory ceded by Oudh to the British under the

treaty of 1801; and an officer was immediately put in charge of the country now divided between the Districts of Gorakhpur, Azamgarh, and Basti.

Efforts were made to bring this extensive region under a firmly-organized Government, and the revenue was reduced from time to time, to meet the needs of the landholders. An invasion of the Nepális in 1813 was successfully repulsed; and the District was happily free from the incidents of history until the Mutiny of 1857. It was then lost for a short time at the beginning of the disturbances, but soon after recovered by the aid of the friendly Gurkhás. Later on, in the month of August, the rebels under Muhammad Hassan occupied the whole District; and it was not till the 6th of January 1858 that the Gurkhá army under Jang Bahádur marched in and occupied Gorakhpur. Muhammad Hassan was then driven out of the city, and shortly afterwards the other rebels were expelled from the outlying *parganás*, which once more passed under our rule.

Population.—In 1853, the Gorakhpur Census returned the number of inhabitants at 1,816,390. By 1865 the figures had risen to 2,024,150, showing an increase of 207,760 persons, or 11·4 per cent. In 1872, upon a reduced area, corresponding to the present District, there was an apparent falling off to 2,019,361. At the last Census, however, in 1881, the population was ascertained to be 2,617,120, showing an increase of 597,759, or 29·6 per cent., in the nine years. The enumerations of 1872 and 1881 are both calculated upon an area of 4598 square miles.

The Census of the latter year disclosed a total of 2,617,120 persons, distributed among 7238 villages or towns, and inhabiting an aggregate of 448,925 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 569; villages per square mile, 1·5; houses per square mile, 97; persons per village, 361; persons per house, 5·8. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 1,306,123; females, 1,310,997. In religion, Gorakhpur still retains for the most part the original creed of its Aryan conquerors. The Census shows a total of 2,354,915 Hindus, or 89·9 per cent., as against 261,196 Musalmáns, or 10·1 per cent. The District also contains 35 Sikhs, 41 Jews, and 933 Christians. The higher caste Hindus consist of 244,386 Bráhmans, 90,266 Rájputs, and 97,005 Baniyás. The other respectable Hindu castes include—Káyasths or writers, forming an important element in the official class, 27,272; Bhuinhars, landholders and cultivators, 27,802; Kurmís, cultivators, 149,812; Kachhís, cultivators, 150,186; Tambulís, betel sellers, 25,658; Telís, oil pressers and sellers, 73,042; Gadáriás, shepherds, 17,135; Nais, barbers, 35,591; Dhobís, washermen, 37,974; Kumbhárs, potters, 45,964; Lohárs, blacksmiths, 47,803; Barhais, carpenters, 22,463; Kahárs, domestic servants, palanquin-bearers, and agricultural labourers, 102,653; Sonars, goldsmiths, 15,149. The inferior castes comprise—

Ahírs, agriculturists, 307,685; Chamárs, leather dealers and labourers, the most numerous caste in the District, 326,205; Mallahs, boatmen, 154,747; Kalwárs, distillers, 30,806; Loniás, salt-makers and diggers, 60,541; Pásís, palm-toddy sellers, 39,121; Bhars, cultivators and labourers, the modern representatives of the once dominant tribe of the country, 63,451. The Musalmáns consist of 260,708 Sunnís and 488 Shiás.

South of Gorakhpur, and particularly along the Gogra, the country is densely inhabited, and the peasantry are comfortably housed, and as civilised as the inhabitants of the southern Districts; but in the extreme north, where forests still abound, the people remain in a very backward condition, living in miserable huts, and being generally wilder, poorer, and more barbarous than the Doáb tribes. The only trade in that part of the District is the through traffic from Nepál, and the roads are few and bad. The great density of population throughout renders the masses extremely poor, the standard of living low, and the margin of superfluity against evil times exceedingly narrow. There were 11 towns in 1881 with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, GORAKHPUR, 57,922; BARHAJ, 11,715; RUDRAPUR, 9843; GORA, 8485; LAR, 7408; GOLA, 7193; PANIA, 6642; BANSGAON, 5873; BADHALGANJ, 5779; MAJHAULI, 5599; and MADANPUR, 5099. The aggregate urban population amounted to 131,549.

The vast majority of the inhabitants are scattered over the country in small hamlets. Of the 7238 villages comprising the District, 3197 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 2741 from two to five hundred, 914 from five hundred to a thousand, 303 from one to two thousand, 55 from two to three thousand, 17 from three to five thousand, 9 from five to ten thousand, 1 from ten to fifteen thousand, and 1 upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. Classified according to occupations, the Census Report returned the male population under the following six main groups:—Class (1) Professional, including all Government servants, civil and military, and the learned professions, 9488; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 3830; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 16,752; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 733,099; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 40,694; (6) indefinite and unspecified (consisting of 23,138 general labourers, and 479,122 persons of unspecified occupation), 502,260.

Village Communities.—The villages in Gorakhpur exemplify each of the three usual tenures—*pattidárí*, with imperfect *pattidárí*, *zamíndárí*, and *bhayáchára*; but the village here has never assumed the same importance as a clearly separate unit which it possesses in the revenue system of other Districts. The bond of connection among the landholding classes was a feudal attachment to the Rájá on whom they were dependent; and village communities, in the sense of associa-

tions bound together by common proprietorship and residence in the same hamlet, were rare and of little importance. The various dependants and relatives of the Rájá were at first obliged to live with their chief, in order to be constantly at hand for his defence; and villages grew up around the fort or house of the Rájá as soon as his following became too large to be accommodated within its walls. The more defined and customary unit in this District is the *tappa* or hundred, a sub-division of the *parganá*, which appears to have existed before the time of the Muhammadans. In many cases the *tappas* correspond with natural divisions formed by rivers or other physical features; but very often they appear to be purely artificial, and probably represent the tract made over by a Rájá to some one of his dependants on a feudal tenure. In consequence of this peculiarity, the earlier revenue settlements were not made by villages, but by *táluks* and *tappas*. The Muhammadan divisions of *chaklás* and *sarkárs* were never much known in Gorakhpur, as their revenue system did not fully develop itself under the imperfect and transitory administration which they maintained in this outlying dependency. The uniformity of British rule, however, is making itself felt in this respect.

Agriculture.—Gorakhpur District contains a total cultivated area of 2785 square miles, but there still remains a margin of 1171 square miles available for cultivation, most of which is now forest. The mode of tillage does not differ from that which prevails elsewhere throughout the great alluvial basin of the Ganges and its tributaries. There are two great harvests a year, in the autumn and in the spring. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rain in June, and gathered in October or November. They consist of cotton, rice, *bájra*, *joár*, *moth*, and other food-grains. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown immediately after the autumn harvest, and reaped in March or April. They are mainly composed of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests. Spring and autumn crops are seldom taken off the same ground, but sometimes a plot of early rice is gathered in August, and a second crop sown in its place for the spring harvest. Owing to the heavy and long-continued rains at the foot of the Himálayas, the country is often flooded, and the *rabí* sowing delayed much later than in other Districts. A great part of the surface is so long inundated, that it yields no autumn crops at all, the spring seed being sown as soon as the water clears off. This flooded land, however, is rendered exceedingly fertile by the deposits which are left behind as the waters recede. The forests possess little economical value. Wild honey is their chief product; the Bhars contract to collect it, and sell it in the neighbouring towns. The trees used to be tapped for their gum, but this practice has been stopped since the forests passed into the hands of Government. Com-

pared with the misrule and oppression which took place under the native Rájás and the Musalmán revenue-farmers, the condition of the people is now vastly improved.

The total male agricultural population of Gorakhpur in 1881 numbered 731,365, cultivating an average of 2·44 acres each. The total agricultural population, however, dependent on the soil, amounted to 2,276,514, or 86·99 per cent. of the District population. Of the total area of 4598 square miles, 4253 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 2751 square miles are under cultivation, 866 square miles are cultivable, and 636 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £199,835, or an average of 2s. 3¼d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rental actually paid by cultivators, £451,179, or 5s. 0¾d. per cultivated acre. Wages and prices are still on the whole rather lower than in the Districts to the south of the Gogra; but the construction of the Patna-Bahráich Railway will probably increase the demand for labour, besides equalizing the cost of necessaries. Coolies and unskilled hands receive from 2¼d. to 3¾d. a day; agricultural labourers from 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters from 6d. to 2s. Women get about one-fifth less than men, while children are paid one-half or one-third the wages of an adult. Prices ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; rice, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; *joár*, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt. Prices ranged higher in 1882-83, and are thus returned in the official reports. Wheat, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt.; rice, from 19 to 13½ *sers* per rupee, or from 5s. 11d. to 8s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 8d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 23½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 9d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Gorakhpur, being a naturally moist and rainy District, suffers less from famine than most other portions of the great north-western plain. The distress in 1780 and 1783 did not seriously affect the Districts beyond the Gogra. In 1803 the rice harvest failed, and the spring crops were endangered, but rain fell in September, and the scarcity was never very severe. The next great famine, in 1837-38, was most heavily felt in the Upper Doáb and Bundelkhand, and did not seriously attack Gorakhpur. The District suffered somewhat, however, in the dearth of 1860-61, when, under the pressure of want, crimes against property became twice as numerous as in ordinary years. In 1873-74 the drought extended to the Districts of Gorakhpur and Basti, and it became necessary to establish relief works in the spring of 1874. The rains shortly afterwards put an end to the distress, and the relief measures were at once discontinued.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of Gorakhpur is chiefly

confined to the export of agricultural produce; but there is a small amount of through traffic with Nepál. BARHAJ is the principal mart of the District. In the north, the trade in rice and pepper is considerable, and that in timber, iron, and copper is large and increasing. The means of communication are still imperfectly developed. No railroad passes through the District, and the nearest railway stations are at Faizábád (Fyzábád) (80 miles), Akbarpur (68 miles), or Zamániá (76 miles). A good metalled road runs due south from Gorakhpur to Benares *viá* Barhalganj, with a length of 36 miles in this District. It is carried over the depression of the Amiyar and Bigra lakes by an embankment 3 miles long, known as the Tucker *bandh*, flanked with solid masonry, and having four considerable bridges on its line. Another metalled road leads from Gorakhpur to Basti and Faizábád, with a length of 15 miles in this District. There are 910 miles of unmetalled road, of which 527 are raised and bridged throughout. The Rápti is navigable for country boats, which convey a large amount of grain and timber into the Gogra, and thence down to the Ganges. The Gogra itself receives a considerable quantity of grain from Barhaj and Barhalganj for the Ganges ports. Rafts of timber are floated down the fierce and dangerous channel of the Great Gandak from Nepál, besides grain and sugar from this District.

Administration.—The local staff generally consists of a Collector-Magistrate, 2 Joint Magistrates, and 1 Deputy, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary establishments. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876 was £227,738, being at the rate of 2s. 2¼d. per head of the population. In 1880–81, the gross imperial revenue was returned at £211,225. A new settlement of the land revenue was commenced in 1859 and completed in 1871. The land-tax in 1876 produced a total sum of £168,071, and in 1881–82, £170,171. In 1880, the total strength of the regular police force amounted to 788 officers and men, including 162 municipal or town police; while the cost of their maintenance was returned at £8953, of which the State contributed £8120, and local funds £833. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 5·8 square miles of area and every 3334 of the population, maintained at a rate of £1, 19s. 2d. per square mile, or less than 1d. per head of the inhabitants. The regular force was supplemented by a rural body of 2298 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The District jail contained in 1880 a daily average of 584 prisoners, of whom 529 were males and 55 females. There are 18 imperial and 19 local post-offices in the District, but no telegraph station. Education was carried on in 1880 by means of 8592 inspected schools, with a total roll of 8592 pupils. Fifteen of these were girls' schools. There are also numerous uninspected private schools for

which no statistics are available; and the Census Report returned 20,291 boys and 278 girls as under instruction in 1881, and 47,653 males and 1087 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. For fiscal purposes, Gorakhpur is sub-divided into 6 *tahsíls* and 12 *parganás*.

Sanitary Aspects.—The District is not subject to very intense heat, being secured from extremes by its vicinity to the hills, and by the moisture of its soil. Dust storms are rare, and cool breezes from the north, rushing down the gorges of the Himálayas, succeed each interval of very hot weather. The climate is, however, relaxing, and there is no bracing cold. The southern and eastern portions, where the jungle has been cleared, is as healthy as most parts of the Province; but the *tarái* and the forest tracts are still subject to malaria. The average rainfall for a period of 30 years ending 1881 was 48·68 inches; the maximum was 60 inches in 1861, and the minimum 25 inches in 1868. In 1881, the total rainfall was 50·88 inches, or 2·20 inches above the average. The mean monthly temperature in the shade was 77° F. in 1870, and 76° in 1871; the extreme range was from 61° in January to 90° in June. The total number of deaths reported in 1880 was 72,133, or 19·8 per thousand of the population. There are 6 charitable dispensaries in the District—at Gorakhpur, Rudarpur, Kasia, Barhalganj, Bela Haria, and Mahárájganj. In 1882 they afforded relief to a total number of 50,126 patients, of whom 953 were in-door and 49,686 were out-door patients. [For further information regarding Gorakhpur District, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. vi. (Government Press, Allahabad, 1881); *Settlement Reports*, by various officers between 1861 and 1863. (A fresh Survey and Settlement of the District was sanctioned by Government in April 1883, although the present settlement does not expire till 1889.) Also the *North-Western Provinces Census Report* for 1881, and the *Provincial and Departmental Administration Reports* from 1881 to 1883.]

Gorakhpur.—Central *tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; traversed by the river Rápti, and consisting throughout of a level plain. Area, 654 square miles, of which 379 are cultivated; population (1872) 330,886; (1881) 416,293, namely, males 208,878, and females 207,415, showing an increase of 85,407 in nine years. Land revenue (at time of settlement), £25,923; total Government revenue, £28,426; rental paid by cultivators, £62,021. In 1883, the *tahsíl* (including head-quarters) contained 3 civil and 11 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 47 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 277.

Gorakhpur.—City, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the river Rápti, about the centre of the District, in lat. 26° 44′ 8″ N., long. 83° 23′

44″ E. Population (1872) 51,117; (1881) 57,922, namely, males 28,730, and females 29,192. Hindus numbered 37,710; Muhammadans, 20,031; Christians, 125; and 'others,' 56. Area of town site, 746 acres. Founded about 1400 A.D., on the site of a more ancient city. For early history and Mutiny narrative, see GORAKHPUR DISTRICT. Head-quarters of a civil and sessions judge; District jail; usual administrative offices. Considerable trade in grain and timber, sent down the Rápti to the Gogra and the Ganges. Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1881, £4905; from taxes, £4466, or 1s. 6¼d. per head of population.

Gorhjhámar.—Town in Rehli *tahsíl*, Ságar District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2498; namely, Hindus, 2063; Kabírpanthís, 56; Satnámís, 52; Muhammadans, 108; and aborigines (by religion), 9.

Gori-bidnúr.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State. Area, 150 square miles; population (1881) 27,708, namely, 14,211 males and 13,497 females. Hindus numbered 26,916; and Muhammadans, 792. Soil loose and fertile, with water easily procurable below the surface. Products—cocoa-nut and areca-nut, sugar-cane, rice, and turmeric. The *táluk* contains 2 civil and 7 criminal courts; regular police, 47 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 298. Land revenue (1883), £12,738.

Gori-bidnúr.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State. Lies on the left bank of the North Pinákini river, 56 miles north-west of Kolár. Lat. 13° 37′ N., long. 77° 32′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 1392. Ancient town with a legendary history connecting with that of the *Mahábhárata*. Head-quarters of the *táluk* of Gori-bidnúr.

Gorigangá.—River in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; one of the headwaters of the Gogra. Rises from a glacier about 12 miles south of the Unth or Untá Dhara Pass, at an elevation of 11,543 feet above sea-level; runs in a perpetual cascade for 60 miles down the mountain valleys; and joins the Káli in lat. 29° 45′ N., long. 80° 25′ E., at a height of 1972 feet above sea-level.

Gorinda Parsandan.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. A small *parganá*, formerly a waste and jungle tract used by Ahírs as grazing ground for their flocks and herds. Said to have been first cleared about 500 years ago by a Bráhman and a Káyasth. Area, 44 square miles, of which 25 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £3434, or an average of 2s. 1¼d. per acre. Land is held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 3492 acres; *pukhtádárí*, 504 acres; *zamíndárí*,

west of Túmkúr; head-quarters of the Kadaba *táluk*. Lat. 13° 18′ 40″ N., long. 76° 58′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 3793, namely, 3342 Hindus, 401 Muhammadans, 40 Jains, and 10 Christians. Entrepôt for the trade in areca-nut between the high lands of Mysore and Wallájah-pet in North Arcot, and also for local traffic. Said to have been founded about 400 years ago by the *gauda* or chief of Hosahalli, the head of

the tribe of Nonaba Wokligars. His descendant was dispossessed by Tipú Sultán, and the family are now ordinary cultivators, though their rank is acknowledged in their own tribe. Gubbi has suffered much from the antagonistic spirit prevailing between the rival trading castes of Komatís and Banájigás or Lingáyats, and was once in danger of being entirely abandoned owing to their dissensions. There are fairs, both weekly and annual, frequented by merchants from great distances. The neighbourhood produces coarse cotton cloth (both white and coloured), blankets, sackcloth, *wolágra* areca-nut, cocoa-nut, jaggery-sugar, tamarind, capsicum, wheat, rice, *ragí* and other grains, lac, steel, and iron. Large imports are received in exchange for these articles, and Gubbi forms an intermediate mart for goods passing through the south of the peninsula in almost all directions. The local trade in areca-nut is estimated at 335 tons—value, £21,840; *kopri* or dry cocoa-nut, 134 tons—value, £3328; cotton cloth, £1500. In addition, areca-nut, pepper, and cardamoms are imported from Nagar and transmitted to Vellore and Wallájah-pet, whence nutmeg, mace, and European piece-goods are received in exchange. Sugar, sugar-candy, and silk from Bangalore are exchanged for cotton and thread from Dhárwár.

of English manufacture. Annual value of sales in the market are estimated at £19,150. Two religious festivals in the year are held in honour of the local goddess, each attended by about 5000 people, at which some trade is carried on. Two mosques, and one or two small Sivaite temples; police station; Government school.

Gosáinganj.—Town in Faizábád District, Oudh.—*See* AHANKARI-PUR.

Gostánadi (*Go-stáni-nadí*, 'River of the Cow's Udder').—River in Godávari District, Madras Pres

according to the Census of 1881. Since 1850, Gúdalúr has become the centre of the south-east Wainád coffee industry, and is a place of growing importance. A sub-magistrate, with a *munsif's* jurisdiction, is stationed here. There are also police and post offices. The transfer of this station and the surrounding country to the jurisdiction of Nílgiri District was carried out in 1877.

Gudiátham (*Gooriattum*).—*Táluk* in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 446 square miles, with 1 town and 246 villages. Houses, 22,821; population (1881) 154,646, namely, 76,491 males and 78,155 females. Hindus numbered 140,126; Muhammadans, 13,376; Christians, 1138; and 'others,' 6. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 65. Land revenue, £22,772. The *táluk* forms a long strip lying along the north bank of the Palár. Its length is nearly 50 miles, while its breadth averages 9 miles. Crops—rice, *kambu*, and *joár*. The maximum assessment on irrigated land for land revenue is £1, 10s. per acre. The soil

is rich in iron, lime, and building stone. There are 109 miles of roads. Chief town, GUDIATHAM.

Gudiátham.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Madras Railway, 75 miles west from Madras, 15 miles west from Vellore (Velúr). Lies 3 miles north of the Palár, and is bisected by the Kaundinia river. Lat. 12° 57′ 20″ N., long. 78° 54′ 40″ E. It contains (1881) 1678 houses and 10,641 inhabitants, namely, 8567 Hindus, 2060 Muhammadans, 8 Christians, and 6 'others.' Head-quarters of the *táluk*, with court, sub-jail, school, post and telegraph offices. Centre of a considerable weaving industry; exports rice to Malabár.

the west by the Eastern Gháts. Area, 291 square miles, with 1 town and 801 villages. Houses, 32,401. Population (1871) 158,061; (1881) 181,390, namely, males 89,407, and females 91,983. The Gúmsúr country till 1836 was native territory; but in that year the chief rose in rebellion against the British power, a military expedition was despatched against him, and his territory was annexed. One result of this annexation was the suppression of the practice of MERIAH, or human sacrifice, which, as was then discovered, prevailed to a considerable extent among the Kandhs, a wild tribe inhabiting the hilly country eastward of Gúmsúr. As a revenue division, Gúmsúr includes the lapsed *zamíndárí* (estate) of Surada, with an area of about 1250 square miles. It enjoys a copious rainfall and fertile soil, and is watered by several large streams, which unite at Aska. The *táluk* is wild and thickly covered with forests of *sál* wood. Wild beasts (tiger, bear, *sambhar*) and game abound. A good deal of sugar-cane is grown in the centre and south, but irrigation is needed to develop the cultivation. The Surada and Gumsur *paiks*, who hold quit-rent lands in the *táluk* on condition of military service when called out against the

Gudiwára.—Village in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 4041. Lies about 20 miles from Masulipatam. A place of great antiquity, with the remains of a Buddhist *stupa* in the middle of the village.

Gúdúr.—*Táluk* in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 910

—*See* ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES, BUNDARE, KANDHS, etc.

Gúmsúr.—Town in Gúmsúr *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 50′ N., long. 84° 42′ E. Formerly the chief town of the *táluk* to which it gives its name; 6 miles south-east from Russellkonda, the present head-quarters. Previous to the disturbances of 1836–37 it was the seat of the Gúmsúr chiefs, and members of the family still reside here. The town is now of no importance.

Gúmti (*Gomati*, identified with the Kúhí of the ancient geographers).—River of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. It rises in Pilíbhit District of the North-Western Provinces, in an alluvial tract between

the Deoha or Garra and the Gogra (Ghágra) rivers. Its source is in a small lake or morass called the Phaljar Tál, in lat. 28° 37′ N., long. 80° 7′ E.; 19 miles east of Pilíbhit town, and about 605 feet above sea-level. The river takes a sinuous but generally south-eastern course for 42 miles, when it enters Oudh in Kheri District, in lat. 28° 11′ N., long. 80° 20′ E. It continues its course to the south-east, till at about 94 miles from its source it receives the Kathna as a tributary on its left bank, in lat. 27° 28′ N., long. 80° 27′ E. Continuing south-eastwards for 80 miles farther, and receiving during its course the Saráyan in lat. 27° 9′ N., long. 80° 55′ E., Lucknow city is reached, where the river is spanned by five bridges. The river here becomes navigable throughout the year; its banks are from 30 to 70 feet high, and it has a minimum cold-weather discharge of 500 cubic feet per second. Below Lucknow, the valley of the Gúmti becomes very narrow, and the scenery picturesque. At Sultánpur, about 170 miles south-east of the Oudh capital, the stream in the dry season is 100 yards wide, with a depth of 4 feet, and a current running at the rate of 2 miles an hour. About 52 miles south-east of Sultánpur, the river re-enters the North-Western Provinces in Jaunpur District. At Jaunpur town, 30 miles from the Oudh frontier, the Gúmti has become a fine stream, spanned by a bridge of 16 arches; 18 miles below Jaunpur, it receives the Sái river on its left bank; and 33 miles lower, in Benares District, the Nind river also on the left bank. Five miles below this last point, the Gúmti falls into the Ganges, in lat. 25° 31′ N., long. 83° 13′ E., after a total course of about 500 miles. Just above the confluence, the Gúmti is crossed by a bridge of boats in the cold and hot weather, which is replaced by a ferry in the rainy season. The Gúmti is navigable by boats of 500 *maunds*, or about 17 tons burthen, throughout the year as far as Diláwarpur Ghát, near Muhamdi in Kheri District. The traffic registered in 1879–80, at a station in Benares District, close to its confluence with the Ganges, amounted to —down-stream, 141,580 *maunds* (grain constituting 78 per cent. of the total); up-stream, 42,209 *maunds* (stone constituting 90 per cent.). Higher up the river there is a very considerable local traffic between Sultánpur District in Oudh, and Jaunpur District in the North-Western Provinces. The worst shoals are in Sultánpur District. Average fall, 8 inches per mile.

Gúmti.—River in Tipperah District, Bengal; formed by the junction of two rivers—the Cháimá and Ráimá, which rise respectively in the Athároamurá and Lankthárái ranges of the Tipperah Hills. These streams unite to form the Gúmti near the eastern boundary of the Tipperah State, just above the succession of rapids known as the Dumrá Falls. The Gúmti enters Tipperah District near the village of Bíbíbázár, about 6 miles east of Comillah (Kumillá), and divides the

District into two nearly equal portions. After a westerly course, it joins the Meghná above Dáúdkándi, in lat. 23° 31′ 45″ N., long. 90° 44′ 15″ E. Its entire length, inclusive of windings, is 66 miles; but from the point where it enters British territory to where it empties itself into the Meghná, its direct length is 36 miles. During the rains, the Gúmti is deep and rapid; in the cold and dry seasons, it becomes fordable at many places. The chief tributaries in Tipperah Hill State are the Kásiganj, the Pithráganj, and the Mailákcherral, all on the right or north bank. The principal towns on the Gúmti are COMILLAH, Jáfarganj, and Pánchpukuriá. Public ferries at Comillah, Companyganj, Murádnagar, and Gauripurá, the latter village being one of the largest rice and jute marts of the District.

Gúna Agency (*Goona Agency*).—Tract of country in Gwalior territory, Central India, comprising the States of RAGHUGARH, PARON, GARHA, DHARNAODA, UMRI, BHADAURA, and SIRSI. This tract is the charge of a Political Assistant, who lives at Gúna (Goona), and who is also second in command of a regiment of the Central India Horse.—*See* GOONA.

lamau, and Manwán *parganás*, in Sitápur; on the south by ..., in Lucknow; and on the west by Sandíla and Kalyánmal. The portion of the *parganá* lying towards the Gúmti consists of branching ravines, occasional sandhills, and poor uneven stretches of sandy *bhúr* land. Towards the south-east corner, an old channel of the river seems to have silted up, and become converted into a network of *jhíls*. At a distance from the river, the soil changes from *bhúr* to *dumát*, but the sand still remains as a substratum. A number of small creeks

Gundamorla Bar.—Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 31′ N., long. 80° 16′ 30″ E. An opening into the sea about 2 miles south of the Gundlakamma river; about 325 yards wide, and 7 feet deep.

Gundár (*Gundu-ár* or *Shaumuganadi*).—River in Madura District, Madras Presidency; formed by the junction of several streams which rise in the Andipatti or Varshanád range, and meet about lat. 9° 36′ N., long. 78° 14′ E. After a south-easterly course of about 100 miles, it falls into the sea near Kilkarái, lat. 9° 8′ N., long. 78° 33′ 30″ E.

Gundárdihi.—*Zamíndárí* or estate attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Area, 77 square miles. Population (1881) 19,927, namely, males 9715, and females 10,212; average density of population, 258·8 per square mile. The estate contains no jungle, and is generally well cultivated, the population and crops being similar to those of the Government portion of the District, by which it is surrounded. The estate has belonged for 300 years to the family of the present *zamíndár*. Gundárdihi village is situated in lat. 20° 56′ 30″ N., long. 81° 20′ 30″ E.

Gundiálí.—Petty State of Jháláwár District in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Population (1871) 1212; and (1881) 916. Estimated revenue, £1200; tribute of £140, 16s. is payable to the British Government. Nine miles south of Wadhwán station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Gundlakamma (literally, '*Stony Bed*').—River of Madras Presidency, which rises in the Nalla Mallái Hills in Karnúl District, near Gundla Brahmesvaram, in lat. 15° 40′ N., long. 75° 49′ E. After receiving two mountain streams, the Jampáleru and the Yenamaleru, it passes into the low country through the Cumbum (Kambham) gorge, at which spot a fine lake has been formed by a dam thrown across the course of the river. This sheet of water, known as the Cumbum Tank, is about 13 miles in circumference. It then follows a tortuous course through Karnúl, Kistna, and Nellore Districts, and finally falls into the Bay of Bengal, 12 or 14 miles north of Ongole, in lat. 15° 33′ N., long. 80° 18′ E. The principal or new mouth of the river is always open, varying in width, according to the season, from 600 to 250 yards, and in depth from 6 to 12½ feet. The second mouth, called by the people

Provinces in Jaunpur District. At Jaunpur town, 30 miles from the Oudh frontier, the Gúmti has become a fine stream, spanned by a bridge of 16 arches; 18 miles below Jaunpur, it receives the Sái river on its left bank; and 33 miles lower, in Benares District, the Nind river also on the left bank. Five miles below this last point, the Gúmti falls into the Ganges, in lat. 25° 31′ N., long. 83° 13′ E., after a total course of about 500 miles. Just above the confluence, the Gúmti is crossed by a bridge of boats in the cold and hot

Singh, founded and gave his name to the place. The descendants of these Báchhils still own 53 out of the 67 villages which constitute the *parganá*. The Kuchlái estate in the north-east is owned by a community of the same tribe. The *parganá* is, on the whole, a poor one, with a scanty population. The villages to the east, bordering on the Saráyan, are much cut up by ravines; and those to the west are subject to a deposit of sand blown from the Gúmti in the hot season; a few of them, however, especially in the south, have a fertile tract of *tarái* land fringing the river. Area, 64 square miles, of which 44 are cultivated; incidence of Government land revenue, 2s. 6⅞d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 0½d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 9⅜d. per acre of total area. Rents are paid almost entirely in kind. Population (1869) 20,220; (1881) 21,710, namely, 11,510 males and 10,200 females. No made roads, but the Gúmti and Saráyan afford good water communication. Three small market villages, at which only the commonest articles of trade are sold. No manufactures.

Gundlupet.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 539

square miles. Population (1881) 54,528, namely, 27,074 males and 27,454 females. Hindus numbered 53,596; Muhammadans, 880; and Christians, 52. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 74 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 273. Land revenue, £6798. The *táluk* has decreased in population and prosperity during the present century.

Gundlupet.—Principal village in Gundlupet *táluk*, Mysore District, Mysore State; situated on the Gundal river, 36 miles south of Mysore town. Lat. 11° 50′ N., long. 76° 44′ E. Population (1881) 2951, including 360 Muhammadans, 38 Christians, and about 198 Márka or old Kanarese Bráhmans. Old town, formerly called Vijáyapura, refounded about 1674 by Chikka Deva Rájá, Wodeyar of Mysore, as being the scene of his father's cremation. He built an *agrahára*, now destroyed, and a fine temple to Aparamita Paravása Deva, fast falling to ruin. The prosperity of the town suffered on the accession of Tipú Sultán, and it has since been depopulated by fever.

Gundwa.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north and east by the Gúmti, separating it from Aurangábád, Gundlamau, and Manwán *parganás*, in Sítápur; on the south by Malihábád, in Lucknow; and on the west by Sandíla and Kalyánmal. The portion of the *parganá* lying towards the Gúmti consists of branching ravines, occasional sandhills, and poor uneven stretches of sandy *bhúr* land. Towards the south-east corner, an old channel of the river seems to have silted up, and become converted into a network of *jhíls*. At a distance from the river, the soil changes from *bhúr* to *dumát*, but the sand still remains as a substratum. A number of small creeks and water-courses fall into the Gúmti, carrying with them the overflowings of the *jhíls* in the interior. Area, 140 square miles, of which 88 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £10,514; average incidence, 3s. 9¼d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 4⅛d. per acre of total area. Staple products—barley and wheat, which occupy ⅖ths of the cultivated area; other crops—*másh*, gram, *bájra*, *ahar*, *moth*, *joár*, linseed, rice, *kodo*, and peas. Of the 117 villages comprising the *parganá*, 48 form the *táluk* or estate of Bharáwán; 36 are *pattidárí*, 30 *zamíndárí*, and 6 *bhayáchára*. Kshattriyas own 94 villages; Bráhmans and Káyasths, 7 each; Kurmís, 3; and Muhammadans, 6. Population (1869) 56,871; (1881) 58,674, namely, 31,138 males and 27,536 females. An unmetalled road intersects the *parganá*, and rough cart tracks link the main villages together. Three Government village schools.

Guni.—*Táluk* in Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated between 24° 30′ and 25° 13′ N. lat., and between 68° 19′ and 68° 50′ E. long. Population (1872) 59,971; and (1881) 71,162, namely, 6278 Hindus, 60,501 Muhammadans, 1175 Sikhs, and

3208 aborigines; number of houses, 15,781; area, 989 square miles, with 127 villages. The area assessed to land revenue in 1882–83 was 76,946 acres; area under actual cultivation, 38,727 acres. Land revenue, £9444. The *táluk* in 1883 contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 45 men.

Gunnaur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division, forming the north-western portion of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and comprising the *parganás* of Rájpurá and Asadpur. Area 310⅓ square miles, of which 177 square miles are cultivated. Population (1872) 128,788; (1881) 117,535, namely, males 63,665, and females 53,870, thus showing a decrease of 11,253 persons in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 105,150; and Muhammadans, 12,385. Land revenue (1872), £16,437; total revenue (including cesses), £18,085.

Gunnaur.—Town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Gunnaur *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 4920, namely, males 2569, and females 2351. A small municipal income for police and conservancy purposes is levied in the shape of a house-tax. The town is situated about three miles from the left or north bank of the Ganges, on the unmetalled road between Bulandshahr and Budáun, and was at one time an emporium of some importance, but the opening of the Alígarh-Moradábád branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has diverted the traffic which formerly passed through it. *Tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*, dispensary, post-office, school, cattle-pound, and travellers' bungalow.

Guntúr (*Guntoor*).—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Bounded on the north by the river Kistna, and on the south by the Kondavidu range of hills. Area, 500 square miles, containing 2 towns and 112 villages. Houses, 22,853. Population (1881) 136,083, namely, 68,476 males and 67,607 females. Hindus numbered 123,264; Muhammadans, 10,704; Christians, 2108; and 'others,' 7. In the south, the *táluk*, when the rainfall is abundant, is a fertile garden, but extremely desolate in dry weather. The region is generally entered by way of Bezwáda, where the passage of the Kistna is made by means of a ferry. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 126 men. Land revenue (1884), £41,043. Chief town, GUNTUR.

Guntúr (*Guntoor*).—Chief town of Guntúr *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, about 46 miles from Masulipatam. Lat. 16° 17′ 42″ N., long. 80° 29′ E. It contains 3877 houses and (1881) 19,646 inhabitants, namely, 14,706 Hindus, 4618 Muhammadans, 314 Christians, and 8 'others.' The head-quarters of the Sub-Collector of Kistna; municipal revenue, £1999; incidence of taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head. Guntúr is divided

into the old and new town, and has been much improved of late, and is considered healthy. The houses of the collector and other officials, as well as the courts of justice, lie to the north and west. Considerable trade in grain and cotton. Four cotton screw presses. A branch of the Bank of Madras has been established in the town since 1869.

Guntúr (Guntoor) was the capital of a Circar (Sarkár) under the Muhammadans. The town became prominent during the French occupation of Southern India in the second half of the 18th century. It was ceded to the French by the Nizám in 1752. At the time of the cession of the NORTHERN CIRCARS to the English in 1776, Guntúr was specially exempted during the life of Basálat Jang, whose personal *jágír* it was. In 1778, the English rented it from him, but it was given up by order of the Governor-General in 1780. In 1788 it came again into British possession, and the cession was finally confirmed in 1823. The cemetery at Guntúr contains many reminiscences of the stirring times of the French occupation. On one tombstone runs the following epitaph over the body of a French commandant:—'*D'Hercule il égála les travaux et la gloire: Mais une mort trop cruelle a trompé notre espoir.*' The great drawback to Guntúr, which has a high reputation for healthiness, is its difficulty of access. In the hot weather, when the canals are closed, there is no escape except by a fatiguing journey over a parched country to Masulipatam, there to await a steamer which anchors seven miles from shore.

Guptasar.—Sacred cave in Sháhabad District, Bengal; about 7 miles from Shergarh and 18 miles from Sasserám. It is situated in a glen; and the entrance, about 18 feet wide by 12 high, lies a little way up the hill. The surface of the interior is everywhere broken and irregular, and masses of rock project from the sides. There are three galleries in the cave, one of which contains the chief object of worship, viz. a stalactite revered as Mahádeo. This cave has never been thoroughly explored, but its various windings are said to be half a mile long.

and west by Kurásar *parganá* in Bahráich. In the time of Suhel Deo, the head of the Rájput confederate princes who ousted the Muhammadan invaders under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd in 1032 A.D., Guwárich was included in the *parganá* of Rámgarh Gauriyá in the kingdom of Gaudá, which comprised the present Districts of Gonda, Basti, and Gorakhpur. It afterwards became included in the Kurása *ráj*; and on the downfall of Achal Singh (*vide* GONDA DISTRICT), it passed into the hands of Maháráj Singh, an illegitimate son of the late Rájá, whose descendants are still in possession of the soil. Several rivers and streams intersect the *parganá*, which slopes from north-west to south-east, the lower levels being the most fertile. Area, 267 square miles, or 170,962 acres, of which 99,155 acres are cultivated, as

tane portion of the Bári Doáb, or tract between the Beas (Biás) and the Rávi, and stretches westward beyond the latter river so as to include a triangular wedge of territory which naturally belongs to the adjoining District of Siálkot. An outlying strip of British territory also runs northward as a cart road into the lower Himálayan ranges, to include the mountain sanitarium of Dalhousie. The rapid torrent of the Chaki separates the Gurdáspur Hills from those of Kángra; while beyond the Rávi, the Kashmír boundary encroaches on the sub-montane tract for some 10 miles below the southern escarpment of the Himálayan system. DALHOUSIE station crowns the westernmost shoulder of a magnificent snowy range, the Dháola Dhár, between which and the plain two minor ranges intervene. Below the hills stretches a picturesque and undulating plateau, covered with abundant timber, and made green by a copious rainfall. In the triangular wedge west of the Rávi, water from hill streams is everywhere available for irrigation, besides conferring additional fertility through the deposit of virgin loam. The streams of the Bári Doáb, however, diverted by dams and embankments, now empty their waters into the Beas directly, in order that their channels may not interfere with the BARI DOAB CANAL, which derives its supply from the Rávi. The central watershed of the Doáb consists of an elevated plain, contracted to an apex just below the hills, but rapidly spreading out like an open fan until it fills the whole space between the two river-beds. Well-defined banks terminate the plateau on either side, the country falling abruptly away to the present level of the rivers. The bank toward the Beas valley attains a considerable height, and is covered by a ridge of drifted sand; that toward the Rávi is less marked. The plain, though apparently a dead level, has a sufficient westward slope to cause a rapid flow of water in definite drainage lines after heavy rain. Five principal water-courses of this description collect a volume large enough to be employed for purposes of irrigation many miles beyond the borders of the District.

The Beas touches the border of the District at Mirthál, flowing south-

extremely desolate in dry weather. The region is generally entered by way of Bezwáda, where the passage of the Kistna is made by means of a ferry. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 126 men. Land revenue (1884), £41,043. Chief town, GUNTUR.

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Gurramkonda, and captured the lower fort, but the citadel held out till the peace, when the place was ceded to the Nizám. In 1799 it was transferred to the British, with the rest of the District of Cuddapah.

Gursarái.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces, and capital of a small *jágír* estate. Situated on the Jaláun and Ságar road, 40 miles north-east of Jhánsi, in lat. 25° 36′ 55″ N., long. 79° 13′ 15″ E. Population (1872) 6368; (1881) 6528, namely, Hindus, 5939; Muhammadans, 512; and Jains, 77. The Rájá is a Deccani Pandit, whose family settled in Bundelkhand under the Maráthá Peshwás. The town consists in large part of brick-built houses and double-storied shops. An imposing fort, with buildings raised to a height of 250 feet, overlooks it from the west. Numerous retainers and followers of the Rájá swell the population of the town. Trade in sugar, imported from Hamírpur District. The estate comprises 63 surrounding villages.

Gurudwárá.—Town in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* DEHRA.

Guru-Síkar.—The name given to the highest peak of Mount Abu, Rájputána; elevation, 5653 feet above sea-level.—*See* ABU.

Guruváyúr. — Village in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 10° 36′ N., longitude 76° 4′ E.; containing 1160 houses and (1881) 6686 inhabitants, namely, 4946 Hindus, 527 Muhammadans, 1206 Christians, and 7 'others.' Notable for its large temples, destroyed by Tipú in 1774, and restored by the Zamorin in 1791.

Guthni.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal, situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak river, 54 miles north-west of Chaprá town. Lat. 26° 9′ 45″ N., long. 54° 5′ E.; population (1881) 4703. Noted as being a principal seat of the sugar manufacture. The town possesses 4 sugar refineries, and has a large export trade. Fine *bázár*.

Gúti.—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency.—*See* GOOTY.

Guwárich (*Gwarich*).—*Parganá* of Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded north by the Terhi river and Gonda *parganá*; east by Digsár *parganá*; south by the Gogra river, separating it from Bara Banki District; and west by Kurásar *parganá* in Bahráich. In the time of Suhel Deo, the head of the Rájput confederate princes who ousted the Muhammadan invaders under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd in 1032 A.D., Guwárich was included in the *parganá* of Rámgarh Gauriyá in the kingdom of Gaudá, which comprised the present Districts of Gonda, Basti, and Gorakhpur. It afterwards became included in the Kurása *ráj*; and on the downfall of Achal Singh (*vide* GONDA DISTRICT), it passed into the hands of Maháráj Singh, an illegitimate son of the late Rájá, whose descendants are still in possession of the soil. Several rivers and streams intersect the *parganá*, which slopes from north-west to south-east, the lower levels being the most fertile. Area, 267 square miles, or 170,962 acres, of which 99,155 acres are cultivated, as

follow:—Indian corn, 37,394 acres; rice, 25,342; wheat, 24,355; barley, 10,549; gram, 7776; other crops, 23,145 acres. Government land revenue, £16,033. Population (1869) 164,745; (1881), Hindus, 132,485; Muhammadans, 10,582; Native Christians, 9: total, 143,076, namely, 73,737 males and 69,339 females. Number of villages, 219; average density of population, 535 per square mile.

Guzerat.—Northern maritime Province of the Bombay Presidency. —*See* GUJARAT.

Gwalior.—Native State in political relationship with the Central India Agency and the Government of India. The possessions of the great Maráthá chiefs of the house of Sindhiá consist of several detached Districts, which are so intermingled with Muhammadan, Rájput, and other principalities, and with British territory, that the boundaries here given will be restricted to that portion of territory which exhibits the largest and most compact area generally included in the name Gwalior; that is to say, the immediate centre at once of the Mahárájá Sindhia's power, and of those protective influences which are exercised over His Highness' country by the Imperial Government of India. This country forms the northern and main portion of the Gwalior State; it contains the city and fortress of Gwalior, and the British cantonments of Morár, Gúna (Goona), and Jhánsi, and lies between the parallels of 23° 20′ and 26° 52′ N., and the meridians of 76° 15′ and 79° 12′ E. It is bounded on the north-east and north-west by the Chambal river, which separates it from the British Districts of Agra and Etáwah, and the Native States of Dholpúr, Karauli, and Jaipur (Jeypore) of Rájputána; on the east by the British Districts of Jalaun, Jhánsi, Lalítpur, and Ságar (Saugor); on the south by the States of Bhopál, Tonk, Kilchipur, and Rájgarh; and on the west by those of Jháláwár, Tonk, and Kotah of Rájputána. The detached *parganás* of the Gwalior State, not included in the above main portion, are as follow:—Under the Western Málwá Agency of Central India, the *parganás* of Agra, Sháhjahánpur, Ujjain, Mandaser, and Nimach (Neemuch); under the Bhíl or Bhopáwár Agency, Amjhera (the extreme southern tract), Manáwar, Dikthán, Sagor, Bág, Bíkaner, and Piplia. Previous to 1860, Mahárájá Sindhia possessed territories south of the Narbadá (Nerbudda); but in that year and in 1861, these were exchanged for lands of equal extent and value on the Sind and Betwá rivers.

The area of the whole State, including Khaniá-dhána and Maksúdangarh, was returned by the Census of 1881 at 29,046 square miles, with a population of 3,115,857 persons, inhabiting 10,346 villages and towns, and 529,650 houses; number of persons per square mile, 107·3; towns and villages per square mile, 0·35; houses per square mile, 18·23; persons per house, 5·88. No previous Census has ever been taken in the State.

Centrally situated as the Gwalior State thus is in India as a whole, and strategically important on that account, as well as because of the famous natural fortress which it contains, its situation is not equally convenient relatively to the country now governed from it. The Maráthás were a spreading, not a consolidating, nor even always an occupying power; and when the Gwalior fortress passed, for the third time in its history, into the possession of the Sindhias, under treaty with our Government in 1805, Daulat Ráo Sindhia and his predecessors had up to that time been nearly always in the field with their armies. But in 1805, the day had come when farther extensions of territory by conquest by native chiefs was to cease, and from then until now the Sindhias have only had to observe from Gwalior, their capital, the establishment of the power which has given fixed limits to the several Native States of India.

Physical Aspects.—Gwalior District, as above defined, is the least raised of the three great plateaux into which Sindhia's territory is divisible; its general elevation towards the central and more depressed portion, in which the capital lies, falling considerably short of 1000 feet. The extreme north-eastern part of Gwalior, adjoining Agra, is generally level, of no great fertility, and much cut up by deep precipitous ravines in the vicinity of the streams. The upper country is dotted over with small isolated hills, which start abruptly out of the level plain. It has generally a stony and sterile aspect, being only slightly wooded; in some parts absolutely bare and rugged, and in others sparsely clothed with *babúl*, tamarind, and low brushwood. Considerable tracts, though sprinkled in some of the hilly parts (*dángs*) with forest, are fairly well covered in autumn with various species of grass, preserves of which, known as *rakhs* and *rúnds*, are maintained to supply forage. The geological formation of the hills is a fine-grained sandstone, disposed in horizontal strata; this sandstone can be quarried to any extent, and is much employed for building purposes, as it can be hewn in slabs of great length and breadth. The extent to which stone takes the place of wood, not only in the roofs and walls, but even in the small interior fittings of houses and other buildings, forms one of the features of Gwalior. This stone is very easily wrought, and Gwalior workmen excel in carving it into designs of great beauty and delicacy for lattices, etc. The southern tracts of the State form a portion of Málwá, a plateau having an average elevation of about 1500 feet, though there are some points rising greatly above that height, as in the instance of Shaizgarh, in the Mandu range, which is 2628 feet above the sea.

The State is watered by numerous rivers. By far the greater portion of the drainage of the Gwalior territory is discharged into the Chambal, which, receiving the waters of several minor tributaries, flows

along the north-west frontier, separating Gwalior from Jaipur (Jeypore), Karauli (Kerowlee), and Dholpúr Native States. Subsequently turning south-east, it forms the north-eastern boundary towards Agra and Etáwah, and joins the Jumna in the latter District. The Sind flows parallel with the Chambal, but farther to the east, and, after receiving the waters of the Morár, Parbatí, and Pabúj, finally falls into the Jumna a short distance below the confluence of the Chambal with that river. The Kuwári, Asan, Sánkh, and other lesser streams, after flowing in a north-easterly and easterly direction, fall into the Sind close to its junction with the Jumna. The south-western and southern portion of Gwalior is noted for its abundant production of the Málwa opium of commerce. Other products—wheat, gram, pulses of various kinds, *joár* (Holcus sorghum), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), maize, rice, linseed and other oil-seeds, garlic, turmeric, ginger, sugar-cane, indigo, *ál* (Morinda multiflora) yielding a fine red dye. Tobacco of excellent quality, but in no great quantity, is raised in the vicinity of Bhílsá. Cotton is largely grown, and iron-ore, containing 75 per cent. of metal, is raised and smelted in many places.

Trade. — The imports consist of British woollens, cottons, silks, cutlery, Cashmere shawls, pearls from the Persian Gulf, Ceylon diamonds, and agates from Bundelkhand, gold, silver, mercury, copper, lead, and zinc. Opium is the principal export, sent to the coast by way of Bombay. Cotton is also largely sent to Bombay, and to the towns on the Jumna and Ganges. The remaining exports of any importance are tobacco, dyes, and iron. The Rájputána-Málwá State Railway passes through a portion of the territory of the Gwalior State on the west; while a railway on the broad gauge connects Gwalior town with Agra.

Climate.—In the dry and hot seasons the climate, though extremely trying, is not unhealthy, but during the rainy season fevers prevail, especially in the north. The range of the thermometer is small, except during the latter part of the year, when great and sudden changes often take place. During six months of the year, the mercury sometimes stands at about 100° F. in the shade for long periods, without varying more than a few degrees day and night; the mean deviation being about $3\frac{1}{2}°$ in twenty-four hours in September, and about $10\frac{1}{2}°$ in February. The cool season comprises the period between the beginning of November and the end of February; the hot season succeeds, and continues to the middle of June, when the periodical rains set in, and last to the close of September, the average fall being between 30 and 40 inches. In 1875, the rainfall was 19·6 inches; in 1881, it was 33 inches. During the sultry season hot winds prevail; but they are of short duration, and though the thermometer rises to

nearly 100° during the day for long periods, the nights are frequently cool and refreshing.

Wild animals comprise the tiger, leopard, bear, wolf, hyæna, wild dog, jackal, fox, ounce, lynx, badger, ichneumon, civet, otter, rat, bat, mouse, wild hog, *nilgaí*, various kinds of antelope and deer, buffalo, monkey, squirrel, porcupine, and hare. Of birds, there are the vulture, eagle, hawks of various kinds, kite, buzzard, owl, hornbill (Buceros), raven, crow, parrot, jay, cuckoo, humming-bird, wild goose, wild duck, pelican, cormorant, spoon-bill, stork, crane, heron, adjutant, curlew, snipe, bustard, florican, peafowl, pheasant, partridge, quail, pigeon, dove, and sparrow. The rivers abound in fish, especially of the carp kind. Of snakes, there are the boa, water-snake, cobra, black-spotted snake, spectacled snake, yellow-clouded snake, whip-snake, and leaping snake. The *magar* or blunt-snouted crocodile infests all the rivers.

Population.—The population of the north-eastern part of the territory is essentially Hindu, and of a mixed kind, comprising, besides the ruling order of Maráthás, Bundelás, Játs, and Rájputs, with other castes of Hindus and various tribes of Muhammadans. Until the Maráthá inroads in the last century, the country was from an early period in the possession of the Muhammadan rulers of Delhi. In no part of Gwalior do the Maráthás form any large proportion of the inhabitants, and according to the best information available, they do not number much more than 15,000; upwards of 10,000 of them are connected with the court or army (more especially the Paigah horse). In the greater part of the southern and south-western parts, comprising a portion of Málwá, a very considerable section of the population is Hindu. There is perhaps no part of India where the tribes of the local or indigenous Bráhmans are so various and their numbers so great. They are all included by their Maráthá conquerors under the generic name of *Rángres*, or rustics (said to come from *ran*, a forest, and *garia*, a man); though strong in numbers, they show little of the Bráhmanical character, either in point of piety, learning, or wealth. The total number of Bráhmans returned by the Census of 1881 for the whole State was 380,193. Rájputs exist in large numbers, and they are the most numerous and important of all Sindhia's subjects. Their number in 1881 was returned at 422,267. Classified by religion, the Census of 1881 returns 2,768,385 Hindus, 167,320 Muhammadans, 12,230 Jains, 208 Christians, 198 Sikhs, and 167,516 aborigines. The Muhammadan population is about a nineteenth of the whole.

The total revenue of the State is estimated at £1,200,000, including £783,890 derived from the land, and £147,020 from customs; the remainder consists of tributes from feudatories, and *jágír* and local taxes. The customs revenue is realized from transit duties on iron, tobacco, and sugar, all other articles being free.

No transit duties are taken on those portions of the Agra and Bombay road or its branches which pass through the State, or on the roads connecting Gwalior with Etáwah, Farukhábád, Datia, Jhánsi, and Kálpi. Education is afforded by 92 schools, attended by 2767 pupils. The average attendance at the Lashkár College amounts to 548 persons. The present (1883) Prime Minister is Ráo Rájá Sir Ganpat Ráo Kharke, K.C.S.I., who is assisted in the administration by 8 Náib Diwáns, for the several departments of revenue, civil, criminal and police, appeal, military, *kárkhánaját* or matters specially pertaining to His Highness, foreign, and legislative. There are 16 courts of justice and 7423 police, including 3000 drilled police called *nájíbs*.

History.—The Gwalior family, whose armies and chiefs have played so conspicuous a part in the history of India, and whose representative now rules over a State larger than Scotland and Wales united, and richer than some independent kingdoms, was founded by the Maráthá Ranojí Sindhia, who was the slipper-bearer of Bálají Peshwá at the beginning of the last century. His father was the hereditary *pátel* (head-man) of a Deccan village. Once in the household of the Peshwá, Ranojí's rise was rapid, and he soon found himself at the head of the bodyguard. After leading many Maráthá raids through Málwá into Hindustán, he was, at the time of his death, the acknowledged possessor of lands which still form part of the Gwalior State.

Ranojí was succeeded by his second son, Mahádají Sindhia, whose ability as a statesman and a soldier has rarely been surpassed. Mahádají was conspicuous for his gallantry at Pánípat in 1761, being amongst the last to leave that field—so disastrous to the Maráthás. Probably the events of that fight led him to see the value of discipline, for when the Maráthá tide of fortune again set in, there was a change of system. He turned his Maráthá horse into disciplined infantry with sword and matchlock, and formed them into brigades; he paid great attention to his artillery, and placed his entire army under the command of French and English adventurers. Though nominally the servant of the Peshwá, he was practically independent, and made his State one of the strongest in India. The Delhi Emperor sought his protection; the Rájput chiefs, with hosts of the best cavalry India could produce, fought in vain against his battalions. He negotiated and guaranteed the treaty at Salbái (1783) between the Peshwá and the British Government.

Mahádají was succeeded in 1794 by his grand-nephew, Daulat Ráo Sindhia. During the distractions which followed the death of Madhu Ráo Náráyan Peshwá, Daulat Ráo gained an ascendancy which enabled him to place Bájí Ráo in power, to usurp most of the possessions of Holkar, and to secure to himself the fortress of

Ahmadnagar in the Deccan, which gave him the entrance into the territories both of the Peshwá and the Nizám. The power of Daulat Ráo, whose army was commanded by French officers, had now become dangerous to the British Government. When by the treaty of Bassein the British Government recovered its influence at Poona by the establishment of a subsidiary force, Daulat Ráo Sindhia entered into a league with Raghují Bhonsla, Rájá of Berár, to defeat the objects of the treaty; and the allied chiefs in 1803 invaded the territory of the Nizám, which was at that time under the protection of the East India Company. On the 23rd of September in that year, the Maráthá army was attacked at Assaye by a British force of about an eighth of its number, commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, subsequently Duke of Wellington, and, after a prolonged and fiercely-contested battle, was totally defeated. The overthrow of Sindhia's military resources in the Deccan was completed by the defeat which the confederated Maráthás received from Sir Arthur Wellesley at Argáum, in Berár, on the 28th of November 1803.

The destruction of the Maráthá power to the north of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) had in the meantime been not less signally effected by General (afterwards Lord) Lake, the British commander-in-chief, who in the beginning of September 1803 stormed Alígarh; and a few days afterwards, nearly opposite Delhi, totally defeated Sindhia's disciplined army, commanded by the Frenchman Bourquin, and effectually cleared the Doáb of the Maráthás. Delhi was immediately occupied by the victorious army. Before the close of the same year, Agra also yielded after a brief attempt at defence. General Lake, indefatigably following up his advantages, a few weeks afterwards destroyed the remnant of Sindhia's disciplined force at Laswári (Laswaree). The power of Daulat Ráo being thus completely broken, he was compelled to sue for peace, and to sign the treaty of Sarji Anjangáon, by which he resigned his conquered territories in Hindustán and south of the Ajanta Hills, with the exception of some hereditary villages. The discontent which Daulat Ráo felt at the determination to deprive him of Gohad and Gwalior, under this treaty, induced him to enter into a correspondence with Holkar, which nearly led to a fresh rupture with the British. Among other acts of hostility, he attacked and plundered the Resident's camp, and detained the Resident a prisoner. The change, however, in the policy of Government on the arrival of Lord Cornwallis, who, independently of any reference to the settlement of differences with Sindhia, deemed it inexpedient to retain possession of Gohad and Gwalior, led to the renewal of negotiations on the basis of the restoration of these territories.

A treaty was accordingly concluded on 22nd November 1805, which confirmed the treaty of Sarji Anjangáon in part, but ceded Gwalior and Gohad to Sindhia, and constituted the Chambal the northern boundary

of his territory; the British Government bound itself not to make treaties with Udaipur (Oodeypore), Jodhpur, Kotah, or any chiefs tributary to Sindhia in Málwá, Mewár, or Márwár, or to interfere in any arrangements he might make regarding them. Daulat Ráo so highly appreciated the advantages arising from the strength of the fort of Gwalior, that he fixed his residence in a permanent camp at the base of the rock, and since that time it has always been considered the capital of the State, to which it has also given its name.

On the outbreak of the Pindárí war in 1817, the plundering hordes who had been generally hangers-on to the Maráthá camps during their campaigns in the latter half of the 18th century looked for support to Sindhia, as the most powerful of the Maráthá princes. Daulat Ráo was also subjected to strong solicitations from the Peshwá, who was endeavouring to resuscitate the old Maráthá confederacy. But the Marquis of Hastings, then Governor-General, promptly advanced with a formidable army to the river Chambal, and so far overawed Sindhia that a treaty was executed abrogating the article of the treaty of 1805 which restrained the British Government from forming engagements with the Rájput States, and binding Sindhia to co-operate with the British against the Pindárís, and also to give up the forts of Asírgarh and Hindia for three years as a security for the lines of communication, and as a guarantee for the performance of his engagements. The fortress of Asírgarh was not, however, surrendered, and it became necessary to occupy it by force. In the captured fort a letter was found, in which Sindhia directed the governor to obey all orders of the Peshwá, who, by attacking the Residency at Poona, had declared war with the British Government. In consequence of this want of good faith, Sindhia was required permanently to cede the fort of Asírgarh.

Daulat Ráo died at Gwalior in 1827 without an heir, and without having adopted a successor. On his death-bed, he left the State and succession in the hands of the British Government, indicating a wish that his younger widow, Baiza Bái, might be treated with consideration. The death of Daulat Ráo was followed by internal discord throughout the State. The succession of a boy of Sindhia's family, Múgat Ráo, to whom it was thought the wishes of Daulat Ráo turned, was admitted by the British Government, under the regency of Baiza Bái. The young Mahárájá was subsequently married to the grand-daughter of Daulat Ráo and Baiza Bái. He took the name of Jhankují Sindhia. But Baiza Bái's regency came to a sudden collapse in 1833. Jealous of power and headstrong, her treatment of the young chief at last became intolerable, and he broke away from her, supported by a large portion of the troops, who now found themselves masters of the situation. The wealth of Baiza Bái was enormous, and it was used for intrigue and dissension without scruple, until it became necessary to

remove her from Gwalior. During the whole of the reign of Jhankují, although the State was at complete peace with external foes, there was constant turbulence within the borders. Jhankují Sindhia died in 1843, without issue, and without having expressed any wish in regard to the succession, though repeatedly urged to do so by the Resident. His widow, with the concurrence of the chief nobles, adopted Baghírat Ráo, a lad eight years of age, belonging to a distant branch of the Sindhia family.

The British Government recognised the adoption, and Baghírat Ráo, under the name of Jaiájí Ráo Sindhia, succeeded. Early in the regency, disturbances took place, and the advance of British troops on Gwalior became necessary to restore order. This, however, was not effected without hard fighting. Two battles, Mahárájpur and Panniár (Punneah), were fought on the same day — the 29th December 1843—between the British forces and the mutinous army. They both resulted in the total defeat of the insurgent troops. The young chief was replaced in power by the British Government. The Gwalior army was disbanded, and the force was reduced to a fixed number—5000 cavalry, 3000 infantry, and 32 guns. Indemnity was taken for the war expenses, and an annual provision of £180,000 assigned to the British Government for the maintenance of a force to preserve order. Thus matters continued till the Mutiny of 1857, when the Gwalior contingent and Sindhia's army again revolted. The Mahárájá, then but a youth, displayed courage and unswerving loyalty to the British Government. In June 1858 he was deserted by his troops on the approach of the rebels under Tántia Topí, and he and his minister, Dinkar Ráo, were compelled to flee to Agra. On the 19th June, Gwalior was retaken by Sir Hugh Rose's force, and the Mahárájá was re-established in his palace. In recognition of his services, the Government conferred upon him the right of adoption, together with lands yielding a revenue of £30,000, and permitted an increase to his army, which now stands at 48 guns, 6000 cavalry, and 5000 infantry.

The Mahárájá is an honorary general in the British army, a Knight Grand Cross of the Bath, Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India, and a Companion of the Indian Empire. On the Gwalior Seal of State are engraved the following titles, which, with the name of the ruling chief in the middle of them, are hereditary with the Sindhias—Mukhtár-ul-Mulk, 'master of the country;' Azim-ul-Ikhtidár, 'great in power;' Rafi-us-Shán, 'high in prestige;' Wálá-Shíkuh, 'exalted in majesty;' Mutasham-i-Daurán, 'the great man of the age;' Undat-ul-Umara, 'pillar of the nobles;' Maháráj, 'the great Rájá;' Dhíráj, 'rájá of rájás;' Alijah, 'the high of place;' Mahárájá Jiáji Ráo Sindhia Bahadur; Srínáth Mandúr-i-Zamán, 'the victorious of the period;' Fideoi-i-Hazrat, Malika, Muazzama, Rafi-ud-darjih, Inglistáy,

1863, 'Vassal of Her Majesty the honoured and exalted Queen of England, 1863.' The old flag of the Sindhias, so well known on Indian battle-fields, was of the orange or brick-red colour called *bgagwa*, with the representation of a serpent on it; after a fable that a cobra once sheltered the founder of the family with its hood, as he lay asleep in the sun. In 1862, however, a kind of Union Jack was adopted in lieu of, or in addition to, the old banner, having two patches of orange on it, with the figure of the serpent on each patch. The Mahárájá is entitled permanently to a salute of 19 guns in British territory, but to a salute of 21 guns in his own territory. The present Mahárájá enjoys a personal salute of 21 guns in British territory also.

Gwalior.—The capital of GWALIOR STATE, and residence of the Mahárájá Sindhia; situated in lat. 26° 13′ N., and long. 78° 12′ E., 65 miles south from Agra, and 277 north-west of Allahábád. In the absence of new materials, this article has been compiled partly from Thornton (1862) and Fergusson (*History of Indian Architecture*, 1876).

Gwalior city has a threefold interest. First, as a very ancient seat of Jain worship; second, for its example of palace architecture of the best Hindu period (1486–1516); third, as the fortress capital of one of the greatest native chiefs of India. A considerable British force is posted in its immediate neighbourhood; but this aspect will be treated of in a separate article on the MORAR Cantonments. The fort of Gwalior stands on an isolated rock of ochreous sandstone formation, capped at places with basalt. The face of the fort is perpendicular, and where the rock is naturally less precipitous it has been scarped, and in some portions the upper parts overhang the lower. Its greatest length from north-east to south-west is a mile and a half, and the greatest breadth, 300 yards. The rock at the northern end attains its maximum height of 342 feet. On its eastern side are sculptured several colossal figures in bold relief. A rampart accessible by a steep road, and farther up by huge steps cut out of the rock, surrounds the fort. This vast staircase, the principal entrance of which is known as the 'Elephant's' Gate, from the figure of that animal being sculptured above it, is protected on the outer side by a massive stone wall, and is swept by guns. The citadel stands at the north-eastern corner of the enclosure, and presents a very picturesque appearance. The old town of Gwalior, which is of considerable size, but irregularly built, and extremely dirty, lies at the eastern base of the rock. It contains the tomb of Muhammad Ghaus, which was erected during the early part of Akbar's reign. Fergusson thus describes the building:—'It is a square measuring 100 feet each way, exclusive of the hexagonal towers, which are attached to the angles. The chamber of the tomb itself is a hall 43 feet square, with the angles cut off by pointed

arches, so as to form an octagon, on which the dome rests. Around this square building is a gallery, 20 feet wide between the piers, enclosed on all sides by a screen of the most exquisite tracery in pierced stonework, with a projecting porch on each face.'

Jain Remains.—There are two remarkable Hindu temples in Gwalior. 'One,' says Mr. Fergusson, 'known as the Sas Báhu, is understood to be a Jain erection, and seems to be so designated and dedicated to Padmanáth, the sixth Tirthankara. General Cunningham doubts this ascription, in consequence of the walls being adorned with bas-reliefs, belonging certainly to the Vaishnav and Siva sects. This temple was finished apparently in A.D. 1093, and, though dreadfully ruined, is still a most picturesque fragment. What remains is the cruciform porch of a temple which, when complete, measured 100 feet from front to rear, and 63 feet across the arms of the porch. Of the sanctuary, with its *sikra*, nothing is left but the foundation; but the porch, which is three storeys in height, is constructively entire, though its details — and principally those of its roof—are very much shattered. An older Jain temple is described by General Cunningham; but as it was used as a mosque it is more likely that it is a Muhammadan building, although made up of Jain details.' Another temple in the fortress of Gwalior is called the *Teli-ka-Mandir* or 'Oilman's Temple.' It is 60 feet square, with a portico on the east projecting about 11 feet, and terminates in a ridge of about 30 feet in extent. 'The building,' says Mr. Fergusson, 'was originally dedicated to Vishnu, but afterwards converted to the worship of Siva. There is no inscription or any tradition from which its date can be gathered, but on the whole I am inclined to place it in the 10th or 11th century.'

The most striking part of the Jain remains at Gwalior is a series of caves or rock-cut sculptures excavated in the rock on all sides, which number, when taken together, hardly less than a hundred, great and small. Most of them are mere niches to contain statues, though some are cells that may have been originally intended for residences. One curious fact regarding them is, that, according to inscriptions, they were all excavated within the short period of about thirty-three years, between A.D. 1441 and A.D. 1474. Some of the figures are of colossal size; one, for instance, is 57 feet high, which is greater than any other in the north of India.

Hindu Palace-Architecture.—The palace built by Mán Singh (A.D. 1486–1516) forms the most interesting example of early Hindu work in India. Its external dimensions, according to Mr. Fergusson, are 300 feet by 160 feet; and on the east side it is 100 feet high, having two underground storeys looking over the country. On all its faces the flat surface is relieved by tall towers of singularly pleasing design, crowned by cupolas covered with domes of gilt copper

when Bábar saw them in 1527. Mán Singh's successor, Vikramáditya, added another palace, of even greater extent, to this one in 1516; and Jahángír and Sháh Jahán added palaces to these two,—the whole making up a group of edifices unequalled for picturesqueness and interest by anything of their class that exists in Central India. Among the apartments in the palace was one called the *Báradári*, supported on 12 columns, and 45 feet square, with a stone roof, which was one of the most beautiful apartments of its class anywhere to be found. It was, besides, singularly interesting from the expedients to which the Hindu architect was forced to resort to imitate the vaults of the Moslems. They had not then learned to copy them, as they did at the end of that century at Bindrában and elsewhere under the guidance of the tolerant Akbar. Of the buildings, however, which so excited the admiration of the Emperor Bábar, probably little now remains. The Moslems added to the palaces of the Hindus, and spared their temples and the statues of the Jains.

Rock Fortress.—According to Wilford, the fort of Gwalior was built in 773 by Surya Sen, the Rájá of the neighbouring country. In 1023, it was unsuccessfully besieged by Mahmúd of Ghazní; in 1196, it was captured by Mahmúd Ghori; in 1211, it was lost by the Musalmáns, but recovered in 1231, after a blockade of a year, by Shams-ud-dín Altamsh, the Slave King of Delhi. Narsinh Rái, a Hindu chief, taking advantage of the trouble produced by the invasion of Tamerlane in 1398, seized Gwalior, which was not regained by the Musalmáns until 1519, under Ibráhim Lodí, the Pathán monarch of Delhi. In 1526, Bábar took the fortress by stratagem; and in 1543, after the expulsion of his son Humáyún, it fell into the hands of his rival, Sher Sháh; but after the re-establishment of Humáyún, Gwalior was, in 1556, recovered by his successor Akbar, who made it a state prison for captives of rank. In the dismemberment of the Delhi Empire, Gwalior was seized by the Ját Ráná of Gohad. Subsequently it was garrisoned by Sindhia, from whom it was wrested in 1780 by the forces of the East India Company. Transferred by the British Government to the Ráná of Gohad, Gwalior was, in 1784, recovered by Mahádhají Sindhia, from whose successor, Daulat Ráo Sindhia (1794–1827), it was taken in 1803, but restored again in 1805.

After Daulat Ráo's death in 1827, his widow governed as guardian of her adopted son, Jhankují, till 1833, when he assumed the Government. Jhankují died in 1843 without an heir. A contest took place between his uncle and the adopted relative of his widow. A revolution was impending, and the Government decided to interfere. Our troops crossed the Chambal, and unexpectedly found the forces of Gwalior drawn up at Mahárájpur, a few miles distant from the fortress. A battle ensued on the 29th December 1843, resulting in the complete overthrow of the

Maráthás. On the same day, another victory was gained by the British troops at Panniár (Punneah). The British contingent stationed in the town was increased, and affairs were placed on a peaceful footing. The last event of historical importance was the revolt of the Gwalior contingent in October 1857.

The population of the new town called Lashkár, where the Mahárájá resides, was returned in 1881 at 88,066, namely, 70,742 Hindus, 17,135 Muhammadans, and 189 'others.' Lashkár has a charitable dispensary, a new jail, and post-office, and is connected with the Gwalior railway station by a new metalled road. The Mahárájá has recently established a paper mill, which is now at work.—*See* GWALIOR STATE.

Gwárich.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh.—*See* GUWARICH.

Gwe-chyo.—River in the north of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It rises in the Padauk spur, 20 miles west of the main range of the Pegu Yomas; after a south-westerly course, it joins the Nawin by the same mouth as the In-gon and Chaung-sauk. Near its source the bed is rocky, but lower down, sandy and muddy; it is unnavigable. The trees most common on its banks are *in* and *htien* (Nauclea sp.).

Gyaing.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bwai and Haungtharaw near Gyaing village, in lat. 16° 34′ N., and long. 98° 3′ E. The united waters flow west for 45 miles, and fall into the Salwín at Maulmain. The Gyaing is a broad but shallow river, containing numerous sandbanks; it is navigable by boats all the year round. The most important places on the banks are—Kado, at the mouth, the Government timber-revenue station; Zatha-byin; Tarana; and Dammatha.

Gyaing Attaran.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated between 15° 59′ and 16° 40′ N. lat., and between 97° 41′ and 97° 55′ E. long. It occupies the valley of the Attaran river, and extends from the hills forming its southern boundary northwards to the Gyaing. Above the junction of the Zamí and Winraw, which unite to form the Attaran, are large tracts of valuable forest land. The timber can only be felled by licence. Teak was formerly very plentiful, but the supply has diminished considerably, owing to the indiscriminate felling in the first years after the British occupation. (*See* AMHERST DISTRICT.) The head-quarters of the township are at Nga-bye-ma (population in 1881, 267), on the Attaran. A few miles above is Yebaw, famed for its hot springs. Gyaing Attaran is divided into 15 circles. Population (1881) 27,790; gross revenue, £5947.

Gyaing-than-lwin.—Division of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated between 16° 33′ and 16° 56′ N. lat.,

Haidarábád (*Hyderabad*, or the Nizám's Dominions).—A Native State or feudatory kingdom, roughly co-extensive with the Deccan (*Dakshin*) or central plateau of Southern India, which takes its name from its capital, HAIDARABAD CITY. 'The form of the territory, inclusive of the HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS, known as Berár, is that of a trapezium. Its base is about 420 miles in a direction from north-east to south-west, from Hampaságar in lat. 15° 10′ N., long. 76° 5′ E., to Maripad in lat. 17° 20′ N., long. 81° 22′ E.; its north-eastern side extends from south-east to north-west a distance of 390 miles, from Maripad, above mentioned, to Melghát in lat. 21° 41′ N., long. 77° 15′ E.; its north-western, in a direction from north-east to south-west, a distance of 220 miles from Melghát, as above, to Phúltamba, lat. 19° 47′ N., long. 74° 40′ E.; and the south-western, a distance of 330 miles

contains 16 revenue circles; the head-quarters station is Za-tha-byin. Population (1881) 47,901; revenue, £13,070.

H.

Hab.—River on the western frontier of Sind, Bombay Presidency, and for some distance the boundary between British territory and Balúchistán. It rises in Khelát (lat. 26° 22′ 30″ N., long. 67° 16′ E.), flows south-east for 25 miles, then due south for 50 miles, and then south-west, till it falls into the Arabian Sea, in lat. 24° 52′ N., long. 66° 42′ E., after a total length of about 100 miles. Except the Indus, it is the only permanent river in Sind. It abounds in fish. A proposal to supply Karáchí (Kurrachee) with drinking water from the Hab was put before the Bombay Government in 1867; but a scheme for bringing water from the Maler river was subsequently sanctioned, and the latter work will soon be completed.

Habiganj.—Sub-division of Sylhet District, Assam, consisting of the four police circles (*thánás*) of Habiganj, Nabiganj, Madhabpur, and Baniáchang. Area, 971 square miles; villages, 2495; houses, 98,196. Total population (1872) 455,009; (1881) 482,051, showing an increase of 27,042, or 5·94 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there

Haidarábád, with its suburbs, forms the City District.

In this article the passages within inverted commas are from an article prepared by Mr. Edward Thornton under the directions of the East India Company.

Physical Aspects.—'Haidarábád is a tract of considerable elevation, averaging 1250 feet above the level of the sea, and some granite summits attain a height of 2500 feet. The elevation of the fort of Golconda, near the city of Haidarábád, has been ascertained to be 2024 feet above sea-level. With the exception of the valley of the Tápti at the northern

extremity of the territory, which is bounded on the north by the Vindhya range and on the south by the high land of the Godávari, the whole drainage of the country is either from west to east or from north-west to south-east, discharging into the Bay of Bengal by the channels of the Godávari and the Kistna. The drainage of the valley of the Tápti, flowing westward, falls into the Gulf of Cambay.' This wide expanse of country presents much variety of surface and feature. In some parts it is mountainous, wooded, and picturesque; in others, flat or undulating. The champaign lands are of all descriptions, including many rich and fertile plains, much good land not yet brought under cultivation, and numerous tracts too sterile ever to be cultivated at all. The most important mountain ranges running through the State are—the Balághát range, running east and west from the *táluk* of Biloli in the Indor District to the *táluk* of Ashti in the Bírh District, a distance of 200 miles within the Nizám's territory; the Sabiádri range, running from the District of Indor to the Assigned Districts of Haidarábád, and on to Khándesh in the Bombay Presidency. The entire length of the Sahyádrís within the Nizám's State is about 250 miles, of which a length of about 100 miles is called the Ajanta Ghát range. The Gawalgarh range runs east and west in Berár for about 64 miles, and the Jálna range runs for a length of 120 miles from Daulatábád eastward in the direction of Jálna.

'*The geological formations* are on a large scale; in the north-west being of the great volcanic formation extending through the greater part of the Deccan, consisting principally of trap, but in some parts basalt. In the middle, southern, and south-western parts, the greater part of the country is overlaid with gneissic formations. In the north-east, along the right bank of the Godávari, there is much sandstone, some of it carboniferous.' Near the junction of the Pengangá with the Wardhá, and in the valley of the latter river, there are coal-fields. Those which have been examined over a small area near Sasti and Páoní show an average of 40 feet in thickness. The quality of the coal hitherto mined is inferior to that of Ráníganj, but good enough for railway purposes. Iron-ore is found in the same neighbourhood, also limestone and *kankar*, or nodular limestone, at Kamaram in the extreme east; and 100 miles north-east of Ellore there is another small coal-field. At Sháhábád, near the junction of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway with the Nizám's State Railway, are quarries of excellent limestone, which are extensively worked for a considerable distance along the line of the latter railway. The stone found is of two colours, grey and black, and takes a polish almost equal to marble. It is now imported into Haidarábád city, and exported elsewhere in large quantities for building purposes, for which it is well suited from its regular cleavage and the ease with which it can be worked.

Rivers.—The Haidarábád territory is, on the whole, well watered, rivers being numerous, while tanks or artificial pieces of water also abound. The GODAVARI, rising on the eastern declivity of the Western Gháts, near Násik in the British District of that name, takes a course south-east for about 90 miles to Phúltamba, where it first touches on this territory, and continues to flow along the border south-eastward for 70 miles to Múngi, in lat. 19° 27′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. Here it enters Haidarábád territory, through which it holds a course nearly easterly for about 160 miles, to the vicinity of Lasona, in lat. 19° 7′ N., long. 77° 5′ E. At that place, it receives on the left side the Dudna river, which flows from the north-east and has a considerable stream after its junction with the Purna river. About 85 miles lower down, in lat. 18° 48′ N., long. 77° 55′ E., it receives on the right side the Manjíra. It thence continues to hold a course generally easterly for about 190 miles, to Kulaisar, in lat. 18° 52′ N., long. 79° 53′ E., where, on the left, it receives the Pranhíta, a large river from the north. After the confluence, turning south-east, it flows for about 155 miles in that direction along the south-western base of the mountains of Bastár to Kottúr, in lat. 17° 29′ N., long. 81° 29′ E., where it passes into Godávari District of the Madras Presidency. Below Kulaisar, it forms the north-eastern boundary of Haidarábád territory. Thus the total length of this great river, along the border and through the territory, is about 600 miles, for above 200 of which it is navigable from June to February. The WARDHA, rising in the hills of Betúl and Chhindwárá, Districts of the Central Provinces, flows south-west for a few miles, and first touching on this territory at Gudra, in lat. 21° 35′ N., long. 78° 25′ E., thence flows towards the south-east 170 miles towards Chándá. In lat. 19° 55′ N., long. 79° 15′ E., it receives on the right side the Pengangá, a large river from the west, which for the greater part of its course forms the boundary between East Berár and the more southern portions of the Nizám's Dominions. After the junction with the Pengangá, the Wardhá continues to flow in a south-easterly direction for 60 miles, and in lat. 19° 37′ N., long. 79° 15′ E., on the left bank receives the Waingangá, from the north. Below the confluence, the united stream, now called the PRANHITA, flows in a tortuous direction, but generally south, for about 80 miles to Kulaisar, in lat. 18° 52′ N., long. 69° 53′ E. This stream, through nearly its whole length, whether denominated the Wardhá or the Pranhíta, marks the boundary between this territory and the Central Provinces. It is navigable for about 170 miles.

The KISTNA or KRISHNA, rising near Mahábaleshwar, in the Western Gháts, holds a course south-east for about 320 miles to lat. 16° 10′ N., long. 76° 18′ E., where it touches, and 10 miles farther passes into, this territory, through which it flows in a direction generally

north-east for about 75 miles to Kadlur in lat. 16° 24′ N., long. 77° 20′ E., where on the left bank it receives the Bhíma from the north-west, and is soon after spanned by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway bridge. From near this point the river, turning south-east, flows 80 miles in that direction to its confluence with the Tungabhadra in lat. 15° 58′ N., long. 78° 19′ E., where it turns north-east and flows 180 miles to lat. 16° 50′ N., long. 80° 10′ E., at which point it passes into Kistna (Krishna) District of the Madras Presidency. From the confluence to the point last named, it forms part of the south-eastern boundary of Haidarábád territory. Thus its total length of course connected with this territory is 345 miles; but in consequence of the ruggedness of its bed, it is of little use for navigation. The TUNGABHADRA, formed by the junction of the rivers Tunga and Bhadra in Mysore, flows north-eastward, and at Múdlapur, in lat. 15° 8′ N., long. 76° 1′ E., first touches this territory, along the south-eastern boundary of which it flows, separating it from the Madras Districts of Bellary and Karnúl (Kurnool) for a distance of 200 miles, to its confluence with the Kistna. Many other streams (considerable rivers during the periodical rains, but much reduced in volume at other times of the year) discharge into these main channels of drainage. Tanks for irrigation are, as before observed, numerous, and some of them are of very great size, as that at Pakhal, which is at least 30 miles in circuit. The *bandh* or dam of this tank is about 2000 yards in length. When full of water, the depth at the sluice is 36 feet. These tanks are generally formed by throwing an embankment across the lower end of a valley, and thus causing the accumulation of the water of such streams as may flow into it. The total number of tanks in the State is about 18,200.

'*The climate* may be considered as in general good; and as there are no arid, bare deserts, similar to those of Rájputána and some other tracts of Northern India, the hot winds are less felt. In the vicinity of the city of Haidarábád, the mean temperature in-doors, according to observations made at sunrise, at two o'clock in the afternoon, and at sunset, for one year, was—in January, 74½° F.; February, 76¼°; March, 84°; April, 91½°; May, 93°; June, 88°; July, 81°; August, 80¼°; September, 79°; October, 80°; November, 76½°; and December, 74½°; giving as an annual mean 81½°. Ophthalmic diseases are prevalent in the sandstone district. The wells in general yield impure, unpalatable water, productive of disease, especially the dracunculus or guinea-worm, from which those who use the water from tanks or streams are exempt.'

The annual fall of rain is estimated at from 28 to 32 inches at Haidarábád; this occurs principally during the south-west monsoon between June and October. In the north-west monsoon there is a fall of only 4 to 7 inches. In 1881, the total rainfall was 29·6 inches.

The winds are generally westerly in June, July, August, and September; during October, November, December, January, and February they blow from the east; and in March, April, and May north-westerly breezes are frequent.

Animals.—Horses adapted for military or general purposes are not reared in the same number as formerly in the Nizám's Dominions. The chief mart for Deccan-bred horses is a fair at Malegáon in Bídar District, about 160 miles from Haidarábád and 200 from Poona. There is also a horse *bázár* near the capital, which is open throughout the year, and is resorted to by merchants from almost every quarter of Asia, with strings of elephants, horses, and camels.

Agriculture.—'The soil is in general fertile, though in some parts it consists of *chilka*, a red and gritty mould, little fitted, from the coarseness of its particles, for agriculture. Resembling this, but composed of particles more minute, is *lal-zamín*, a soil also of a reddish hue, and considered by Walker to be formed of the remains of broken-down ant-hills, which are surprisingly numerous in this country. "Thus," observes the writer just referred to, "we see that those insects, usually looked upon as troublesome and destructive pests, are not without their use in a grand natural operation. The peculiar acid (the formic), which is their chief constituent, acts upon the alkali and lime, and most probably on the silica of the rock debris, pulverizing it, and facilitating, in all probability, fresh combinations. The soil, when manured, is fitted for the reception of all kinds of crops without reference to season." Though less extensive than the kinds just enumerated, the *regar* or black cotton-soil occurs in many places, and is esteemed the best of any, and, as indicated by the epithet above applied to it, peculiarly suited for the cultivation of cotton. It requires no manure, except that left by sheep generally fed upon it when under fallow previous to cultivation. This is, however, an important resource, as flocks of sheep are everywhere to be seen. There is also a soil denominated *taláo-ka-zamín*, a black earth, dug from the bottoms of tanks; but not much prized, being a stiff clay and containing a profusion of small fresh-water shells. Its extreme tenacity is found unfavourable to vegetation, which is still further thwarted by a large impregnation of carbonate of soda. This, however, is collected in great quantities for manufacturing and commercial purposes. All those soils effervesce with acids, thereby indicating that they contain carbonate of lime. Throughout this territory the ground, wherever left uncultivated, even but for a year or two, becomes covered with a low jungle, composed chiefly of the Cassia auriculata and Zizyphus microphylla. In process of time, the appearance of the jungle is enlivened by the growth of numerous trees, of which the principal are Butea frondosa, Bombax heptaphyllum, Erythrina indica, Hyperanthera

moringa, Cassia fistula, Anona reticulata, Melia azadirachta, Bauhinia parviflora, Capparis trifolia, Ficus indica, Ficus religiosa, Bombax gossipium, Feronia elephantum, and several species of Acacia.

'The toddy palms, Borassus flabelliformis and Phœnix sylvestris, are extensively cultivated on account of their sap, which is drawn off, and fermented into an intoxicating beverage. The cocoa-nut tree cannot be brought to perfection, even with the greatest care, accompanied by the most favourable circumstances; and in consequence, its cultivation is very circumscribed. Mango and tamarind trees occur in great numbers about the villages. The betel vine is also cultivated, but in no great quantities. The principal grain crops are rice (of which there are no less than eight varieties), wheat, maize of various kinds, *jodr* (Holcus sorghum), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *ragí* (Cynosurus corocanus); of oil-seeds — mustard, Sesamum orientale, and Ricinus communis or castor-oil plant; of leguminous growths — Dolichos lablab, Dolichos gladiatus, Phaseolus mungo, *chenna* (Cicer arietinum). Melons, cucumbers, gourds, and some other cucurbitacea are largely grown, and form important articles of diet. The gardens produce onions, garlic, carrots, radishes, potatoes, sweet potatoes, coriander, ginger, turmeric, and various kinds of amaranth used as pot-herbs. Tobacco is cultivated, but not to a great extent. Cotton, indigo, and sugar-cane are the more important objects of the agriculturist's care. *Al* (Morinda citrifolia) and *chayrút* (Oldenlandia umbellata), valuable dyes, occur wild, and are also cultivated.'

The cotton-producing capabilities of the country are well known. The produce of Kunar Idlábád District, which chiefly finds its way to the Hinganghát market, is greatly valued, and fetches a high price. In 1875, there were no mills or manufactories in the territory; but a cotton-spinning factory has recently been constructed in connection with a wealthy European firm in Bombay. Fruit of many different kinds is plentiful. The mango and custard-apple grow wild over large tracts. The melons and pine-apples of Haidarábád are as celebrated in their way as the oranges of Nágpur, and the large purple grape of Daulatábád is exported to many distant markets. Plants rich in textile fibre are not less abundant, and will one day, it may be presumed, be utilized on a large scale. '*Tasar* silk, the produce of a wild species of worm, is everywhere gathered in the jungles. Hides, raw and tanned, both of domesticated and wild quadrupeds, are articles of some importance in commerce. Wild bees swarm in all the jungles; consequently wax and honey are abundant and cheap. Lac, suitable for use as a resin or a dye, may be obtained in quantities far beyond the present demand. Mucilaginous gums are produced in the woods in inexhaustible quantities, and there are some considered not inferior in quality to the best African gums. Of gum resins, the most

worth notice is that yielded by the Boswellia thurifera. *Dika-mali*, a resin yielded in great quantities by several species of Gardenia, is much used in native pharmacy, and probably might serve important purposes in the arts, but its properties have not been adequately tested. Some sorts of nuts yield oils, which might prove important articles of commerce. Cordage is supplied by the common *san* (Crotalaria juncea), also by some species of Bauhinia, and of admirable quality by Asclepias tenacissima. Of timber, the teak (Tectona grandis) produced in this territory is stunted and indifferent; but some of fine quality is floated down the river from the forests of Nágpur. Other valuable woods are Diospyros melanoxylon and Dalbergia or *sissu*.'

People.—A Census of the population of the Nizám's Dominions in 1881, excluding Berár or the HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS, which are under British administration, returned a total of 9,845,594 persons, of whom 925,929, or about one-tenth, were Muhammadans. The principal sects among the Muhammadans are the Shaikhs, who number 484,155; the Sayyids, 89,909; the Mughals, 15,423; and the Patháns, 61,437; the 'unspecified' being returned at 275,005. The chief divisions among the remaining population were thus given—Bráhmans, 259,147; Rájputs, 49,843; Bairágis, 5057; Bedars, 119,161; Bhois, 92,170; Chamárs (leather-workers), 447,312; tailors, 30,937; Dhángars, 482,035; Gaondís, 30,039; Gaolis, 212,608; Gosaíns, 21,395; Gujarátis, 3544; Lingayats (traders), 97,836; Jogís (jugglers), 4371; Lohárs (smiths), 56,128; Kamatis (traders), 194,284; Kolís (cultivators), 213,966; Koshtís, 79,142; Kunbís (cultivators), 1,658,665; Mángs, 315,732; Mális, 83,806; Mahars, 806,653; Kumbhars (potters), 90,835; Mahalís, 102,213; Manbhaos, 2627; Maráthás, 369,636; Marwárís (money-lenders and bankers), 42,009; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 88,769; Telingas, 327,338; Telís, 67,564; Waddars, 54,833; Banjáras (carriers), 6120; Baniyás (village shopkeepers), 392,184; Bhíls, 8470; Gonds, 39,513; Koyas, 45,300; Lambánís, 85,204; and Pardhís, 2114. The above figures would give an average density of population for Haidarábád of about 123 to the square mile. In the south-eastern part of the territory, the Telugu language prevails; and in the south-western Districts, in the vicinity of the Kistna river, Kanarese is spoken. In the northern and western parts, Maráthí is generally used; and, as the border-land between this language and the Dravidian languages passes through the Nizám's Dominions, there is a considerable intermixture of people speaking different languages. The Maráthás are most numerous in the west. The Musalmáns are chiefly to be met with in the capital, and everywhere in the civil and military service of Government. In addition to the Hindu and Muhammadan popu-

lation, there is a large admixture of Pársís, Sikhs, Arabs, Rohillás, aborigines, and 'others.'

Owing to the general distribution of arms among all classes, the people of Haidarábád, as of other Native States, present to the casual observer a more formidable appearance than is borne out, perhaps, by anything in their actual character or disposition. The Telingas or Telugu-speaking folk, though not in a highly-advanced state of civilisation, are by no means sunk in barbarism. They generally inhabit straggling villages, in houses built of mud, with pyramidal roofs of palmyra leaves, though a few dwellings are more substantially constructed of brick, and tiled. In some of the less civilised parts, the habitations are mere sheds of palmyra leaves, or hovels made of bamboos and wattle. There is usually to each village a detached fort, constructed either of masonry or mud, about 50 yards square, and containing the dwellings of the *zamíndár* and his immediate dependants. There is a considerable proportion of Bráhmans among the Telingas; and the usual diet of these and the higher classes consists of rice in some localities and of wheat and *joár* in others, with vegetable curries, and cakes flavoured with garlic or assafœtida and fried in butter. The Bráhmans profess to abstain from animal food; but the *zamíndárs* of the Kunbí caste consume mutton, poultry, and game. The lower orders subsist on *ragí* and other inferior sorts of grain; all are addicted to intoxication with the fermented sap of various kinds of palms and spirit distilled from the flowers of the *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia). Tobacco is generally used, both for smoking and chewing, as well as in the form of snuff. *Bhang*, or the intoxicating narcotic obtained from hemp, and opium are also in use, but to no great extent. The Gonds, who lurk in the hills and fastnesses, are a wild and savage race; yet they may be rendered tractable and obedient by kind treatment. At present the majority are nearly in a state of nature, sheltering in caves or hollow trees, and feeding on game when obtainable, at other times on vermin, reptiles, and wild roots or fruits.

Commerce, etc.—The principal articles of export are cotton, oil-seeds, country cloth, hides, metal ware, and agricultural produce; the imports are salt from the eastern and western coasts, grain, timber, European piece-goods, and hardware. In the absence of any complete system of registration, the only means of approximately estimating the annual value of the trade of the Nizám's Dominions with other Provinces is by calculating it from the known yield of the *ad valorem* duties levied at customs houses. The amount thus deducible would be about £10,000,000 sterling per annum. Among the manufactures of the country may be mentioned the ornamental metal ware of Bidar; the gold-embroidered cloth (*kamkhab*) of Aurangábád, Gulbarga, and

other towns; and the excellent paper of different kinds which is made by the inhabitants of the hamlet of Kághazpur, near the famous fortress of Daulatábád.

Communications.—The railway connecting Bombay with Madras traverses the south-western part of the State. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway works the line as far as Ráichur, where it is joined by the Madras Railway. At Wadi, 7 miles from the station of Sháhábád, on the Great Indian Peninsula line, the Nizám's State Railway branches off to Haidarábád and to the military cantonment of Secunderábád (Sikandrábád). From Haidarábád two lines of telegraph separate, one going south-west to Bellary, the other with an easterly direction towards Masulipatam, near the mouth of the Kistna. 'The principal roads are the military ones—(1) from north to south, from Nágpur through the city of Haidarábád to Bangalore; (2) from south-east to north-west, from Madras and Masulipatam through the city of Haidarábád to Poona and thence to Bombay; (3) from south-east to north-west, from the city of Haidarábád to Aurangábád.'

Administration.—The revenue of the Nizám's Dominions, Berár included, may be stated in round numbers at £4,000,000, inclusive of receipts from all sources. About three-fourths of the above large sum is collected by the Nizám's own Government from tracts under native rule. The remaining one-fourth is realized by British officers principally from Berár. All revenue collected by our Government from Districts owning the sovereignty of the Nizám is either spent by us in administering those Districts, or is handed over to him as unexpended surplus. The only feudatory of the Nizám is the Rájá of Gudwál, who is independent in his internal administration so long as he pays an annual tribute of £11,500.

The land revenue is still collected in kind in some parts of the country; the rate for irrigated crops being half to the Government and half to the cultivator. Where it is paid in money, the rate is much the same, about 8 annas in the rupee or one shilling out of every two on the value of the crop.

The Haidarábád Government has a mint and a currency of its own. In former days, rupees of different kinds were manufactured in various parts of the country. Now there is only one mint, situated in the city of Haidarábád; and only one kind of rupee, namely, the *hali sicca*, or 'rupee of the period,' is turned out. Though smaller in disc, it is also a good deal thicker than our rupee, and the difference in weight and intrinsic value between the two coins is trifling.

History.—The dynasty of the Nizám was founded by Asaf Jah, a distinguished general of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, of Túrkoman descent. After a long life at the Delhi Court, distinguished alike in war and political cunning, he was appointed in 1713 Subahdár or

Viceroy of the Deccan, with the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk (Regulator of the State), which has since become hereditary in the family. The Mughal Empire was at this time torn by internal dissension, and at the same time threatened by the rising power of the Maráthás. Amid the general confusion, Asaf Jah had little difficulty in asserting his independence against the degenerate descendant of Aurangzeb, though he was less successful in repelling the inroads of Maráthá cavalry. At the time of his death in 1748, he was firmly established as an independent sovereign, with Haidarábád for his capital, and a kingdom roughly co-extensive with the present State.

The right of succession was fiercely contested among his descendants. The claimants most favoured were two. One of these, Nasír Jang, the second son of the deceased ruler, being on the spot when his father died, had seized the treasure, and obtained the support of the army; and, moreover, he fortified his claim by an alleged renunciation of the right of inheritance on the part of his elder brother. The other, Muzaffar Jang, was a grandson of Nizám-ul-Mulk by a favourite daughter; and to him, it was said, the succession was conveyed by testamentary bequest. Each of the two candidates had the good fortune to secure the countenance and support of one of the great European powers then commencing their career of contention for supremacy in the East,—the English espousing the cause of Nasír Jang, the French that of his rival, Muzaffar Jang; but after a very brief period, dissensions between the commander and his officers caused the retirement of the French force from the field, and Muzaffar Jang, deprived of support, became the prisoner of Nasír Jang. Nasír Jang soon afterwards perished by the hands of his own followers, and Muzaffar Jang was proclaimed Subahdár of the Deccan; but his authority was exercised under the control of the French commander, Dupleix, whose will was supreme. Muzaffar Jang was not destined long to enjoy even the appearance of power. He fell in an affray with some Pathán chiefs, who, having been instrumental in placing him on the throne, were disappointed in the amount of reward to which they thought their services entitled. A new occupant of the seat of power was now to be sought; and the French, passing over an infant son of Muzaffar Jang, selected Salábat Jang, a brother of Nasír Jang, to be ruler of the Deccan. Another claimant for the dignity, however, shortly afterwards appeared in the person of Ghází-ud-dín, the eldest son of the Nizám Asaf Jah. The impending contest between the brothers was averted by the sudden death of Ghází-ud-dín; and though the Maráthás, by whom he was supported, continued for their own purposes to maintain hostilities, their unvarying ill-success disposed them to listen to proposals for procuring their withdrawal on the usual terms.

The English and French, however, continued to struggle for power and influence in the Deccan; but the latter were compelled after a while, by the danger threatening their own possessions from the victories gained by Clive, to withdraw from the support of Salábat Jang, who thus weakened, and apprehensive, moreover, of the designs of a younger brother, Nizám Alí, entered into an engagement with the English, by which he promised to dismiss the French from his service, and renounce all connection with them. In 1761, this weak prince was dethroned by his own brother, Nizám Alí, whom, contrary to the advice of the most judicious of his French councillors, he had entrusted with power which was used to supplant the donor. Two years afterwards, the usurper made further acknowledgment of his brother's favour by putting him to death. In 1765 he ravaged the Karnatic, exercising in his course a measure of cruelty far beyond what was necessary to his purpose; but he retired on the approach of a British force. Still the British Government was anxious to be on better terms with him, partly from a desire to obtain his concurrence to their retention of the maritime Province known as the NORTHERN CIRCARS, formerly possessed by the French, but now occupied by the English, who had fortified their right by the *firmán* of the Emperor.

Accordingly, in 1766, a treaty was concluded by which, on condition of a grant of the Circars, the British Government agreed to furnish the Nizám with a subsidiary force when required, and to pay 9 *lákhs* of rupees (say £90,000) a year, when the assistance of their troops was not required. The Nizám on his part engaged to assist the British with his troops. There were other stipulations; and among them one reserving the life right of Basálat Jang, a brother of Nizám Alí, in one of the Circars, subject to his good behaviour. The aid of British troops was afforded, as provided by the treaty, to enable Nizám Alí to march against Haidar Alí of Mysore, then rapidly rising to power; but after a good deal of vacillation, Nizám Alí preferred to unite with that adventurer. The allies, however, were unprosperous, and the Nizám was compelled to sue for peace, which was concluded by a new treaty in 1768. By the Sixth Article, the East India Company and the Nawáb of the Karnatic (who was a party to the treaty) were to be always ready to send two battalions of Sepoys and six pieces of artillery, manned by Europeans, wherever the Nizám should require them, and the situation of affairs should allow of such assistance being rendered, the Nizám paying the expense during the time such force should be employed in this service. In 1782, Basálat Jang died; but the Company did not obtain possession of the Circar held by him till 1788. The *peshkash*, or payment to be made to the Nizám on account of the Circars, had fallen into arrear, and was not adjusted till a later period. These matters, however, having been at length arranged, the British Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, in

1789, addressed a letter to the Nizám explaining and interpreting the treaty of 1768, but declining to enter into any new treaty, as had been suggested. That letter was subsequently declared, by a resolution of the House of Commons, to have the full force of a treaty executed in due form. In it the Governor-General agreed that the force stipulated for in the Sixth Article of the treaty of 1768 should be granted whenever applied for, provided it was not to be employed against any power in alliance with the Company. In the following year, on the breaking out of a war with Tipú, son of Haidar Alí, a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between the Nizám, the Peshwá, and the British Government. Tipú purchased peace at the price of half his dominions, and the Nizám had no reason to be dissatisfied with his share of the spoil. At a later period, the Nizám, being engaged in war with the Maráthás, claimed the assistance of the British Government under the subsisting relations between them; but the Governor-General, Sir John Shore, was precluded by the treaties with the Maráthás from interfering further than as mediator, and the Nizám was eventually obliged to conclude an ignominious peace with his enemy. The refusal of assistance and its results so incensed the Nizám, that he requested that two battalions stationed at his capital as a subsidiary force should be withdrawn.

The Nizám now sought safety in the enlistment of a body of troops commanded by French officers, who, however, were dismissed in accordance with the provisions of a treaty (1798), under the administration of the Earl of Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley. By this treaty, a subsidiary force, augmented to 6000 Sepoys with a due proportion of field-pieces, was assigned to the service of the Nizám, who on his part agreed to pay a subsidy for the support of the force of £241,710. On the fall of Seringapatam and the death of Tipú Sultán, the Nizám participated largely in the division of territory, under the partition treaty of 1799, and his share was increased on the Peshwá's withdrawal from the treaty. In 1800, the subsidiary force with the Nizám was further augmented, and the pecuniary payment for its maintenance was commuted for a cession of territory. The country ceded on this occasion consisted of the acquisitions made from Tipú allotted to the Nizám under the treaty of Seringapatam in 1792, and the treaty of Mysore, concluded in 1799, after the destruction of Tipú's power and government. This territory is known to the present time under the title of the Ceded Districts.

By the treaty of 1800, the Nizám agreed to furnish in time of war 6000 infantry and 9000 cavalry to co-operate with the British army, and to employ every effort to bring into the field as speedily as possible the whole force of his dominions. But his troops proved very inefficient in the first Maráthá war, and, after the conclusion of the

campaign, various schemes were from time to time proposed for their reform, with little success. Eventually battalions were raised, which were clothed, armed, and equipped like the Company's troops; and for the regular payment of this contingent, advances were made in 1843 from the British treasury, on the distinct understanding that in the event of further advances becoming necessary, a territorial security for the payment of the debt would be demanded. No efforts, however, were made to pay off the debt, which continued to increase. At last, in 1853, a new treaty was concluded, by which the British Government agreed to maintain an auxiliary force of not less than 5000 infantry, 2000 cavalry, and 4 field batteries, and to provide for its payment and for certain pensions and the interest on the debt; the Nizám on his part agreed to cede in trust Districts yielding a gross revenue of 50 *láhks* of rupees (say £500,000). By this treaty the Nizám, while retaining the full use of the subsidiary force and contingent, was released from the unlimited obligation of service in time of war; and the contingent ceased to be part of the Nizám's army, and became an auxiliary force kept up by the British Government for the Nizám's use.

In 1857, when the Mutiny broke out, the condition of Haidarábád and the Nizám's Dominions became critical; and in July, an attack, which was repulsed, was made upon the Residency. The Haidarábád contingent displayed its loyalty in the field against the rebels. In 1860, a fresh treaty was made by which the territorial acquisitions of the Nizám were increased, a debt of 50 *lákhs* of rupees was cancelled, and the Assigned Districts in Berár, yielding a gross revenue of Rs. 3,200,000 (say £320,000), were taken in trust by the British Government for the purposes specified in the treaty of 1853. Under British administration the revenues of Berár have greatly increased. They amounted in 1882–83 to £855,233. The surplus is paid over to the Haidarábád State.

The present Nizám, Mír Mahbub Alí, was born in 1866. He is in point of rank the first Muhammadan ruler in India, and is entitled to a salute of 21 guns. The military force of the Nizám consists of 71 field and 654 other guns, 551 artillerymen, 1400 cavalry, and 12,775 infantry, besides a large body of irregulars.

Haidarábád (*Hyderábád*).—Chief city and capital of Haidarábád State; situated in lat. 17° 21′ 45″ N., and long. 78° 30′ 10″ E., on the river Musí, which is here between 400 and 500 feet wide. It stands at a height of about 1700 feet above sea-level, and is distant 389 miles north-west from Madras, 449 south-east from Bombay, and 962 south-west from Calcutta. According to the Census taken in February 1881, the population of the city was returned at 123,675; and of the suburbs, 231,287; making a total of 354,962. The city is about 6 miles in circumference, with a stone wall, flanked with bastions, encircling

it. The street architecture is not imposing, and there are few buildings with any pretensions to architectural merit. Perhaps there is no city in India with a population so varied or so warlike. Every man goes about armed with a weapon of some kind, while the military classes are literally armed to the teeth. Here may be seen the Arab, the Sidi, the Rohilla, the Pathán, the Maráthá, the Turk, the Sikh, Persians, Bokhariots, Pársís, Madrasis, and others.

The scenery around Haidarábád is wild and picturesque, the country being hilly and dotted with numerous granite peaks and isolated rocks. Approached from the west, the appearance of the city is very striking; the palace and mosques and magnificent pile of buildings erected for the British Residency towering above the outer wall. A large lake, a few miles south of Haidarábád, supplies the city. When full, this sheet of water is nearly 20 miles in circumference, and covers an area of 10,000 acres.

The palace of the Nizám, the mosques, and the British Residency are the principal buildings. The former has, however, no pretensions to splendour, but is of considerable size. M. Langlès describes it as being more than a league in circumference, and guarded by a valiant body of Amazons. Haidarábád is a great Muhammadan stronghold, and contains several mosques. The *Jamá Masjid* or 'Cathedral' Mosque, so called after the one at Mecca, from which it is designed, is large, and crowned by minarets of an extraordinary height. The pillars within consist each of a single piece of granite, and are very lofty. In the environs of Haidarábád there are many fine gardens, with gorgeous pavilions. That of the Nizám's minister is said to be wonderfully beautiful. It is enclosed by high walls, and in the centre is a marble tank. Carved trellis-work forms an important feature in the building. One of the most interesting places in Haidarábád is the College or *Chár Minár* (so called from its 4 minarets), built upon four grand arches, at which the four principal streets of the city meet. Above are several storeys of rooms, and formerly each storey was devoted to a science. These apartments are now turned into warehouses.

On the north side of the Musí is an extensive suburb known as the Begam or 'Princess' Bázár, because the imposts levied there are a perquisite of the Nizám's principal wife. The British Residency is in this quarter, and communication between it and the palace of the Nizám is maintained by a handsome bridge, planned by Colonel Oliphant, of the Madras Engineers. It was built in 1831, of squared granite, and has eight arches; the roadway is 24 feet wide. The British Residency was designed by Mr. Russell, and is remarkable, among other things, as having been constructed entirely by native workmen. The north front looks away from the river and the city. It is adorned by a splendid portico, to which leads up a flight of twenty-

two steps, having on either side a colossal sphinx. From the summit of the steps six Corinthian columns, faced with *chunám* stone of dazzling whiteness, rise to the top of the upper storey of the main building. The Company's arms, in alto-relievo, form the central ornament. The interior of the portico is elaborately carved, and the whole building stands in ornamental pleasure-grounds, enclosed by a wall with two gateways. The staircase is the finest in India, each step being a single block of the finest granite; the walls are richly decorated, and the apartments are furnished with the utmost luxuriance. The pavilions, galleries, and terraces are ornamented in the florid style of Oriental architecture, with a profusion of delicate trellis-work, painting, and gilding. The finest private residence in the city is the palace of the *Bára Dari* or 'Twelve Doors,' now occupied by the present minister of the Nizám, Sir Salár Jung.

History.—Haidarábád was founded in 1589, by Kutab Sháh Muhammad Kúlí, the fifth in descent from Sultán Kúlí Kutab Sháh, the founder of the dynasty at Golconda. Muhammad Kúlí removed the seat of government from Golconda on account of its want of water and consequent unhealthiness, and built a new city on the banks of the Musí river, 7 miles from his former capital. He called it *Bhágnagar*, 'Fortunate City,' from his favourite mistress, Bhágmati; but after her death he named it Haidarábád, 'The City of Haidar,' though for many years it retained its former appellation. The history of Golconda and of Haidarábád after 1589 are almost identical. Soon after establishing himself in his new capital, Muhammad Kúlí carried on with the neighbouring Hindu Rájás the war which his predecessor, Ibráhím Sháh, had begun. He extended his conquests south of the Kistna river; the strong fortress of Gandikota was captured, and one of his detachments sacked the town of Cuddapah. Some of his troops penetrated even to the frontiers of Bengal, and Muhammad Kúlí defeated the Rájá of Orissa, and subjugated the greater part of the Northern Circars.

In 1603, an ambassador from Sháh Abbas, King of Persia, arrived at Haidarábád with a ruby-studded crown and other magnificent gifts. The palace of Díl-kushá was allotted to the envoy, who remained there six years, receiving from Muhammad Kúlí £2000 annually for his expenses. When the ambassador left for Persia, an officer of the court of Haidarábád accompanied him, bearing return presents, and amongst them some gold cloth manufactured at Paitan, which it took five years to make. In 1611, Muhammad Kúlí died, after a prosperous reign of thirty-four years. The principal memorials of this monarch are the palace and gardens of Iláhí Mahál, the Muhammadí gardens, the palace of Nabat Ghát, the *Chár Minár* or College already described, and the *Jamá Masjid* or 'Cathedral'

Mosque. According to the accounts of Mír Abú Tálib, the king's private treasurer, £2,800,000 was expended on public works during the reign of Muhammad Kúlí, and £24,000 was distributed every year among the poor. The king's example of liberality was followed by his nobility; and the number of handsome buildings throughout the dominions of the Kutab Sháh monarchs is unsurpassed, if not unequalled, in any other of the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Deccan.

Muhammad Kúlí was succeeded by his son, Sultán Abdullá Kutab Sháh. The Mughals under Sháh Jahán, the fifth Emperor (1627–58), now make their appearance in Southern India. Aurangzeb, Sháh Jahán's son, was sent as viceroy into the Deccan by that prince, who seemed bent on compensating for failures beyond the Indus by the subjugation of Bíjapur and Golconda. The immediate cause of his attack on the latter kingdom was an appeal from Mír Jumlá, the Prime Minister, whose son had involved him in a dispute with the court. Mír Jumlá, finding himself unable to obtain such concessions as he desired from his own sovereign, determined to throw himself on the protection of the Mughal Emperor. Such an opportunity for intrigue suited Aurangzeb's character, and he strongly urged his father to entertain Mír Jumlá's petition. Sháh Jahán, influenced by this advice, issued a mandate to Abdullá to redress the complaints of his minister; but Abdullá was so incensed by this questioning of his independence that he sequestrated Mír Jumlá's property, and committed his son, Muhammad Amín, to prison. Sháh Jahán now despatched Aurangzeb to carry his demands into effect by force of arms. Under pretext of escorting his son Sultán Muhammad to Bengal, to wed the daughter of his brother Prince Shujá, Aurangzeb made a treacherous attack on Haidarábád. The road from Aurangábád (the capital of the Deccan) to Bengal made a circuit by Masulipatam in order to avoid the forests of Gondwána, and thus naturally brought the viceroy within a short distance of Haidarábád. Abdullá Kutab Sháh was preparing an entertainment for Aurangzeb's reception, when he suddenly advanced as an enemy, and took the king so completely by surprise that he had only time to flee to the hill-fort of Golconda, 7 miles distant, whilst Haidarábád fell into the hands of the Mughals, and was plundered and half burned before the troops could be brought into order. Abdullá did all in his power to negotiate reasonable terms, but the Mughals were inexorable; and after several attempts to raise the siege by force, he was at last forced to accept the severe conditions imposed on him, viz. to give his daughter in marriage to Sultán Muhammad, with a dowry in land and money; to pay a crore of rupees (£1,000,000 sterling) as the first instalment of a yearly tribute; and to make up the arrears of past payments in two years. Mír Jumlá remained in the

service of the Mughals, and became a favourite general of Aurangzeb, and one of the most useful instruments of his ambition.

Abdullá died in 1672, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Abú Husain, who in his youth had been notorious for dissipated habits. He fell entirely under the influence of a Maráthá Bráhman, named Madhúna Panth, who became his Prime Minister. In 1676, at the invitation of this man, Sivají, the founder of the Maráthá supremacy, entered Haidarábád with a force of 70,000 men, on his way to the Karnatic. He also concluded a treaty with Abú Husain. Sivají's reception at Golconda afforded grounds for a war with the State of Bíjápur, but the invasion was resisted and defeated by Madhúna Panth. Sivají died in 1680, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Sambají, with whom Abú Husain also entered into an alliance. Aurangzeb was prevented from at once turning his arms against Golconda, owing to a convention made by his son, Prince Muazim. When, in 1686, Khán Jahán was sent against that State, and found himself unable to oppose its army, he begged urgently for reinforcements; and Prince Muazim was despatched to his assistance. The leader of the Golconda troops proved unfaithful to his cause, and allowed the united forces to proceed unmolested to Haidarábád, where he joined the Mughals with the greater part of his troops. The king, Abú Husain, shut himself in the fort of Golconda; and Haidarábád was again left open to plunder. Madhúna Panth was killed in a popular tumult, and the king accepted such terms as he could obtain. A payment of 2 millions sterling in money and jewels was demanded. The treaty, however, was of short duration, for in 1687 Aurangzeb formally declared war against Abú Husain. The king bravely defended the fort of Golconda for seven months, and lost it at last by treachery, and was sent a captive to Daulatábád, where he resided until his death. Abú Husain was a very popular monarch, and many anecdotes of his virtues are still current in the Deccan. Aurangzeb immediately took possession of all the territories of Bíjápur and Golconda, but his occupation was little more than military. The Districts were farmed out, and were governed by military leaders, who received 25 per cent. for the expense of collecting the revenue.

No event of any importance occurred at Haidarábád until 1707, the year of Aurangzeb's death. A dispute for the crown took place between his two sons, Prince Azím and Prince Muazim. The latter was victorious, and ascended the throne as Bahádur Sháh. Prince Kám Bakhsh refused to acknowledge his brother as king; and Bahádur Sháh, after attempting in vain to win him over by concessions, marched against him to the Deccan, and defeated him in a battle near Haidarábád (February 1708), in which Kám Bakhsh was mortally wounded. Bahádur Sháh then made a truce with the Maráthás; and affairs in

the Deccan remained quiet until the end of his reign, in 1712. The viceroyalty was given to Zulfikár Khán, an adherent of Prince Azím; and the administration of the government to Dáúd Khán, a Pathán officer, who had distinguished himself under Aurangzeb. The death of Bahádur Sháh was followed by struggles amongst his sons. The incapacity of the eldest, Jahándár Sháh, had given a great ascendancy to the second, Azím-us-Shán, who was supported by the army and the nobility. A battle ensued; Azím-us-Shán was repulsed and slain, and Jahándár Sháh remained undisputed master of the throne. One of his first acts was to put all the princes of the blood within his reach to death. Among those whom he could not get into his power was Farukhsiyyar, the only son of Azím-us-Shán; but the cause of this prince was espoused by the governor of Behar, Sayyid Husain Alí. The rivals met near Agra on the 28th of December 1712; and on the 1st of January 1713, Farukhsiyyar ascended the throne, and conferred dignities upon all his adherents. Among these was Chin Khilich Khán, a noble of high rank, and a brilliant statesman, to whom was given the title of Nizám-ul-mulk Asaf Jah. Zulfikár Khán was put to death, and Sayyid Husain Alí appointed viceroy of the Deccan in his stead. But the Emperor was jealous of his powerful subject, and wished to get rid of him. He therefore wrote to Dáúd Khán, promising him the viceroyalty if he would attack Husain Alí on his arrival in the Deccan and destroy him. No more acceptable commission could have been offered to Dáúd Khán than that of revenging the death of his friend and patron Zulfikár; and taking up a position at Burhánpur, he proclaimed himself viceroy, and awaited Husain Alí's appearance. A severe battle was fought, in which Dáúd Khán was on the point of victory when he was struck by a bullet, and killed instantly (1716). Husain Alí immediately took the field against the Maráthás, but was completely routed. He and his brother Sayyid Abdullá Khán, the Wazír of the Deccan, now united their forces against Farukhsiyyar, whose schemes for the destruction of Husain Alí had proved abortive. In December 1719 the allies advanced upon Delhi, and the Emperor submitted to their demands, which became more exorbitant day by day, and ended in their obtaining possession of the royal citadel and palace, which were occupied by their troops. In February 1819, Farukhsiyyar was deposed, and, two months later, put to death by order of Husain Alí and Abdullá Khán.

The two Sayyids, as the brothers were called, selected as Emperor Rafí-ud-daulá, who died in a few months. He was succeeded (1719 to 1748) by Muhammad Sháh, the last independent Emperor that sat on the Delhi throne. The first great event in his reign was the overthrow of the two Sayyids, which was effected in great measure by a league between Asaf Jah and Saádat Khán, his coadjutor and rival,

and afterwards the founder of the Oudh dynasty. Asaf Jah saw in the disturbed condition of the country an excuse for raising troops; and as he perceived the difficulty of establishing a permanent control at Delhi, he determined to lay the foundation of his power on a firmer basis, and turned his attention first to the Deccan. His plans against the Sayyids succeeded. In October 1720, Husain Alí was assassinated, and at the end of the year Abdullá Khán was defeated and taken prisoner by Muhammad Sháh; but the power of this monarch was rapidly declining. In January 1722, Asaf Jah arrived at Delhi, and assumed the office of Wazír. He found the court in a state of the utmost weakness; the Emperor and his favourites were given up to pleasure; and after some months of mutual dissatisfaction, they devised plans to free themselves from the troublesome counsels of Asaf Jah. The Wazír was despatched against the refractory governor of Gujarát, but speedily returned, strengthened by the addition of a rich Province. In October 1723, shortly after this victory, Asaf Jah resigned his post as Wazír, and set off for the Deccan, a proceeding amounting in reality to a declaration of independence. The Emperor, although he graciously accepted Asaf Jah's resignation, and conferred on him the title of Lieutenant of the Empire,—the highest that could be conferred on a subject,—did not on that account abate his hostility. He sent orders to the local governor of Haidarábád to endeavour to dispossess the viceroy, and assume the government of the Deccan in his place.

Mubáriz Khán entered zealously on this task, and succeeded in gathering together a powerful army. Asaf Jah protracted negotiations for several months, and endeavoured to sow sedition among the adherents of the governor. At last he was forced to come to open war, and soon gained a decisive victory over Mubáriz, who lost his life in the battle, fought in October 1724. As the Emperor had not avowed the attack which he had instigated, Asaf Jah, not to be outdone in dissimulation, sent the head of Mubáriz to court with his own congratulations on the extinction of the rebellion. He then fixed his residence at Haidarábád, and became the founder of an independent kingdom, now ruled over by his descendants, who derive from him the title of the Nizáms of HAIDARABAD STATE. (In the compilation of this section, considerable use has been made of Elphinstone's *History of India.*)

Haidarábád (*Hyderábád*) **Assigned Districts.**—A Province in Central India, better known under the name of Berár, administered by the British Resident at Haidarábád, under the title of Chief Commissioner of Berár. It comprises the six Districts of AKOLA, BULDANA, BASIM, AMRAOTI, ELLICHPUR, and WUN. Bounded on the north and east by the Central Provinces; on the south by the Nizám's Dominions; and on the west by the Bombay Presidency. Lies between 19° 26′

and 21° 46′ N. latitude, and between 75° 58′ 45″ and 79° 13′ 13″ E. longitude. Area, 17,711 square miles; population (1881) 2,672,673 persons, dwelling in 5585 towns and villages, and in 466,027 houses; number of persons per house, 5·74; average density, 151 persons per square mile.

Physical Aspects.—Berár is, in the main, a broad valley running east and west, lying between the Sátpura range on the north and the Ajanta range on the south. The old local name of the valley at the base of the Sátpuras was Berár Payanghát; that of the tracts situated among the uplands and hills of the Ajanta range being Berár Bálághát. The real strength of the Province is found in the valley at the base of the Sátpuras. This valley is watered or drained, as the case may be, by the Púrna (an affluent of the Tápti), and a perfect network of streams descending into the main river, both from the hills in the north and from the hills in the south. Its soil is one vast superstratum of black loam overlying trap and basalt. Its rainfall is regular and copious; its area is now almost entirely cultivated, nearly the whole surface being covered over at harvest time by a sheet of crops. Its population is dense, and consists of Kunbís and other hardy and industrious agricultural castes. It is traversed from west to east, for the greater part of its breadth, by the railway from Nágpur to Bhusáwal and Bombay. It possesses one of the richest and most extensive cotton-fields in India, and several cotton marts of the first rank. Its other products, especially millets and oil-seeds, are also excellent. Altogether, it is one of the most promising regions in India; and in respect to natural and material advantages, it surpasses any tract in either the Central Provinces or the Deccan.

The area of Berár may be reckoned at a little more than 17,700 square miles, being about equal to that of the kingdom of Greece without the Ionian Islands. Its population is double that of Greece. Its length from east to west is about 150 miles, and its breadth averages 144 miles. The principal rivers are the Tápti, the Púrna, the Wardhá, and the Pengangá or Pranhíta. The Tápti is the only river of the first class, but the Wardhá is by far the most important as commanding the drainage and irrigation. The Province has but one natural lake, the salt lake of LONAR in Buldána District, a great curiosity. The view of the lake is striking. It is shut in by a ridge of well-wooded hills, and is perfectly circular. The area of the lake is 345 acres, and the circumference 5½ miles. The forest area of the Province on the 31st March 1883 was 4344 square miles, of which 1106 square miles were State reserves, 283 District reserves, and 2955 unreserved forests. The area of forests actually protected from fire was 552,931 acres in 1882 and 622,640 acres in 1883. The most valuable forests are those on the Gáwilgarh Hills. The greater part of the Berár valley is sup-

plied with bamboos and wood for building purposes from this range of hills. The teak produced in the Melghát tract of the Gangra valley finds its way to the country above the *gháts* in South Berár, while the villages north of the Púrna river, and north of Amráoti, draw their supplies of grass and firewood to a great extent from the same region. Annually, during the rains, large herds of cattle are sent into the hills for pasture. A plantation garden has been established at Makhla; area of regular plantations (1881–82), 1409 acres. The Berár forests are worked on the following system. Timber is only allowed to be cut on permission given by the Deputy-Commissioner, and it must in all cases be paid for at certain fixed rates. Fuel may be cut, but not exported, without permission. Grass and minor produce are sold by auction. The expenditure on the Forest Department of Berár was £15,169 in 1881–82, and £14,997 in 1882–83. The income in the former year was £23,381, and in the latter year £28,704. Convictions in 1882–83 for breaches of forest rules, 363.

Iron-ore is plentiful throughout large tracts on the east, especially in the hills about Káranja, and along the low range close to Amráoti on the north-east. It is not worked by the natives, and the proportion of iron in the ore has not been scientifically determined. The only District within Berár which yields coal is Wún, where, stretching along the valley of the Wardhá river, in a direction roughly north and south, a group of beds of thick coal of fair quality has lately been found. This group may be said to extend from near the Wardhá river on the north to the Pengangá on the south. The beds associated with the coal can be traced throughout; and, although the existence of coal throughout the entire distance has not been proved, there can be little reasonable doubt that it will be found to occur. An examination of the coal capacity of the region was begun in 1875, but the operations were stopped because there appeared no immediate prospect of a market.

Climate.—The climate differs very little from that of the Deccan generally, except that in the Payanghát valley the hot weather is sometimes exceptionally severe. It sets in early, for the freshness of the short cold season disappears with the crops, when the ground has been laid bare by carrying the harvest; but the heat does not much increase until the end of March. From the 1st of May until the rains set in, about the middle of June, the sun is very powerful, though its effect is not intensified by the scorching winds of Upper India. The nights are comparatively cool throughout, probably because the direct rays of the sun have their influence counteracted by the retentiveness of moisture peculiar to the black soil, and by the evaporation which is always going on. During the rains, the air is moist and cool. In the Bálághát country, above the Ajanta Hills, the thermometer stands

much lower than in the plains. On the loftiest Gáwilgarh Hills, the climate is always temperate; the sanitarium of CHIKALDA (3777 feet) is on this range, 20 miles from Ellichpur. The average rainfall for the whole Province is not accurately known; it is said to be about 27 inches a year in the valley, and 30 inches above the *ghâts.* The average for the whole region lies between 27 and 40 inches. The rainfall at Ellichpur in 1881 was 28·7 inches, and at Chikalda in the same year, 60 inches. On the Gáwilgarh Hills it is, of course, much heavier than elsewhere. The vital statistics of Berár are fairly reliable. The number of births registered in 1882 was 110,454, or 42 per thousand; number of deaths 77,214, or 29 per thousand. Of the deaths, 3573 were assigned to cholera, 369 to small-pox, and 39,340 to fevers. There were 36 civil hospitals and charitable dispensaries in the Province open in 1882, or 1 to every 492 square miles; in-door patients, 2091; out-door, 178,919; expenditure, £11,401. On sanitation, the six municipalities of Berár spent £5213 in 1882. There is a special vaccination establishment; number of operations, 90,058 in 1881, and 103,517 in 1882. Total cost, £1719 in 1881, and £1706 in 1882.

History.—In early times, the greater part of the Deccan, as far northward as the Narbadá (Nerbudda), was subject to Rájput princes of the Chalúkya race, whose capital was at Kalyán near Gulbargah, from about 1000 to 1200 A.D. Rám Deo, who was conquered and slain by Alá-ud-dín, was the last of the Yadava line of kings, who reigned not without fame at Deogarh, the modern Daulatábád, down to the end of the 13th century. We may be allowed to guess that Berár was at one period under the sway of Kalyán, or of Deogarh, probably of both successively, though the south-eastern District of the old Province may have belonged to the kingdom ruled by the ancient Hindu Rájás at Warangul. Remains of ancient Hindu architecture attest the received hypothesis that the Province must long have formed part of that principal Rájput kingdom which occupied the heart of the Deccan. But local tradition tells of independent Rájás who governed Berár from Ellichpur, which is said to take its name from one of them, called Rájá I'l. The same authority states, what may possibly be corroborated by architectural relics, which have yet to be examined by a competent antiquary, that the princes or governors of Berár, immediately before the Muhammadan invasion, were Jains.

In 1294, Alá-ud-dín, nephew and son-in-law to the Delhi Emperor Firoz Ghilzái, made his first expedition into the Deccan. After defeating the Yadava Prince Rám Deo at Deogarh, he is said to have been bought out of the country by a heavy ransom, accompanied by the cession of Ellichpur. Soon after his return to Upper India, Alá-ud-dín murdered his uncle and usurped the Delhi throne. Throughout his reign the Deccan was plundered by successive bands of Muham-

madans from the north; but on his death, the Hindus seem to have recovered the Provinces previously subject to Deogarh. However, this insurrection was crushed in 1318–19 by Mubárak Ghilzái, when he flayed alive the last Hindu Prince of Deogarh; and Berár has ever since been nominally under the dominion of Muhammadan rulers.

Under them it has always kept its distinct name; and there is reason to believe that from the first it formed a separate Provincial charge, of course with constant change of boundaries. In 1351, on the death of the Emperor Muhammad Tughlak, the southern Provinces fell away from his house, and for 250 years maintained their independence of Delhi. For the next 130 years, Berár remained under the dominion of the Báhmani kings, so called because the founder of their line was either a Bráhman or a Bráhman's servant. This man ruled all the Deccan under the title of Alá-ud-dín Husain Sháh, and divided his kingdom into four Provinces, of which Mahur, Rámgarh, and part of Berár formed one.

On the collapse of this dynasty in 1526, we find Berár one of the five kingdoms into which the Deccan had virtually split up, fairly embarked on a period of independence under the Imad Sháhi Princes, whose capital was Ellichpur. The founder of this dynasty had been, it is said, a Kanarese Hindu captured in war, whom Khán Jahán, Governor of Berár, promoted to high office. He rose to the title of Imad-ul-Mulk, and the command of the Berár forces. But he bequeathed to his successors no share either of his good fortune or ability. An attack by the allied Kings of Bíjapur and Ahmadnagar gave Berár to the latter in 1572. The Ahmadnagar dynasty, however, was not destined long to hold possession of the prize. The cession of Berár to the Emperor Akbar by the Ahmadnagar Government took place in 1596. In 1599, the great Emperor himself came down to Burhánpur and organized his recent conquests. Ahmadnagar was taken; and all the country recently annexed, including Berár, was placed under Prince Danyál (the Emperor's son) as viceroy, Berár retaining its separate formation as an imperial *subah*, of which the extent and revenue are pretty accurately known from the *Aín-i-Akbarí*. The death of Akbar in 1605 distracted for a time the attention of the Mughal Government from their new Province in the Deccan; and Málik Ambar, who represented Nizám Sháhí independence at Daulatábád, recovered the greater part of Berár. This man, an Abyssinian by race, is well known as the great revenue administrator of the Upper Deccan. He first made a regular assessment by fixing the Government share in the estimated produce, commuted to money value, says Duff's *History of the Maráthás;* but the native officials of Berár assert that the assessment was on the quality of land, at so much per *bighá*, said to have been made in 1612. Málik Ambar held his own in these

parts until he died in 1628. In 1630, the Mughals recovered Berár, and re-established the imperial authority. Sháh Jahán divided his Deccan dominions into two governments, of which one comprised Berár, Payanghát, Jálna, and Khándesh; but these were soon reunited under one head. The revenue assessment was reorganized, and the *faslí* era introduced from 1637-38.

It is very difficult, and would not be very profitable, to pursue the separate thread of Berár Provincial history through the tangled coil of Deccan warfare, from 1650, when Aurangzeb became Viceroy of the Deccan, until the hour when he died at Ahmadnagar, in 1707. Berár underwent its share of fire and sword, Maráthá plundering and Mughal rack-renting. After Aurangzeb's death, the Maráthás consolidated their predominance, and *chauth* and *sardeshmúkhi* were formally granted by the Sayyid Ministers of the Emperor Farúkhsiyyar in 1717, upon the six and a half *subahats* of the Deccan. But, in 1720, Chin Khilich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, won his independence by three victories over the imperial lieutenants, or rather over the armies commanded by the partisans of the Sayyid Ministers who governed in the Emperor's name. Nizám-ul-Mulk had been joined by the Subahdár of Berár. The first battle was fought near Burhánpur in 1721; the second at Bálápur soon after; and the last decisive victory was gained, in August 1724, at Shakar-Khelda, called *Fateh-Khelda* from that day, in the present Buldáná District. From this date Berár has always been nominally subject to the Haidarábád dynasty.

The material and even moral injury caused to this Province by the wars of the 18th century must have been wide and deep. Described in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as highly cultivated, and in parts populous, supposed by M. de Thévenot in 1667 to be one of the wealthiest portions of the Empire, it fell on evil days before the close of the 17th century. Cultivation fell off just when the finances were strained by the long wars; the local revenue officers rebelled; the army became mutinous; and the Maráthás easily plundered a weak Province, when they had divided its sinews by cutting off its trade. Wherever the Emperor appointed a *jágírdár*, the Maráthás appointed another, and both claimed the revenue, while foragers from each side exacted forced contributions; so that the harassed cultivator often threw up his land, and joined in the general business of plunder. The Maráthás succeeded in retaining their hold on this Province; but its resources were ruined, and its people must have been seriously demoralized by a *régime* of barefaced plunder and fleecing, without pretension to principle or stability. By the partition treaty of Haidarábád (dated 1804), the whole of Berár, including Districts east of the Wardhá,—but excluding certain tracts left with the Nágpur chiefs and the Peshwá,—was made

over in perpetual sovereignty to the Nizám. The forts of Gáwilgarh and Narnala remained subject to Nágpur. A fresh treaty was made in 1822, which settled the frontier of Berár, and conferred upon the Nizám all the country west of the Wardhá. The tracts lying east of that river were at length formally ceded to Nágpur; but the Districts taken by the Peshwá in 1795, and those which had been left to Nágpur in 1803, were all restored to the Nizám. The disbanding of large numbers of troops filled the country with gangs of plunderers; and it was sometimes necessary for the British Government to interfere for the preservation of peace, as in 1849, when Apá Sáhib was captured and his followers dispersed. Meanwhile, the Nizám's finances had sunk into such a desperate state that in 1843, and in several succeeding years, the pay of the force maintained under the treaty of 1800 had to be advanced from the British Treasury.

The bankruptcy of the Haidarábád State at length necessitated. in 1853, a new treaty, under which the existing Haidarábád Contingent is maintained by the British Government, in lieu of the troops which the Nizám had been previously bound to furnish on demand in time of war; while, for the payment of this Contingent, and other claims on the Nizám, Districts yielding a gross revenue of 50 *lákhs* of rupees (£500,000) were assigned to the British Government. There is a garrison of the Haidarábád Contingent now at Ellichpur, consisting of a detachment of 73 cavalry, a battery of artillery with 127 men, and 765 infantry. At Akola and Amráoti, two outposts, there are 193 infantry and 113 infantry respectively.

The territory made over to the British under this treaty comprised, besides the Assigned Districts as they now exist, the Districts of Dharáseo and the Ráichur Doáb. It was agreed that accounts should be annually rendered to the Nizám, and that any surplus revenue should be paid to him. On his part, he was released from the obligation of furnishing a large force in time of war; while the Contingent ceased to be part of the Nizám's army, and became an auxiliary force kept by the British Government for his use. The provisions of the treaty of 1853, however, which required the submission of annual accounts of the Assigned Districts to the Nizám, were productive of much inconvenience and embarrassing discussions. Difficulties had also arisen regarding the levy of the 5 per cent. duty on goods under the commercial treaty of 1802.

To remove these difficulties, and at the same time to reward the Nizám for his services in 1857, a new treaty was concluded in December 1860, by which a debt of 50 *lákhs* due from the Nizám was cancelled; the territory of Súrapur, which had been confiscated for the rebellion of its Hindu Rájá, was ceded to the Nizám; and the Districts of Dharáseo and the Ráichur Doáb were restored to

him. On the other hand, the Nizám ceded certain Districts on the left bank of the Godávari, traffic on which river was to be free from all duties; and he agreed that the remaining Assigned Districts in Berár, together with other Districts, then yielding a gross revenue of Rs. 3,200,000 (£320,000), should be held in trust by the British Government for the purposes specified in the treaty of 1853, but that no demand for accounts of the receipts and expenditure of the Assigned Districts should be made. Certain territorial exchanges were also effected, with the object of bringing under British administration those lands within the Assigned Districts which were held in *jágír* for payment of troops, or which were allotted for the Nizám's privy purse.

The history of Berár since 1853 is marked by no important political events beside the change made under the treaty of 1861. Its smooth course was scarcely ruffled even by the troubles of 1857; whatever fires may have been smouldering beneath the surface, the country remained calm, measuring its behaviour, not by Delhi, but by Haidarábád. In 1858, Tántia Topí reached the Sátpura Hills, and tried to break across southward that he might stir up the Deccan; but he was headed back at all outlets, and never got away into the Berár valley. The Province has rapidly progressed under British rule. 'When it was made over to us,' writes Sir Richard Temple in his official report, 'the neighbouring Districts were full of families who had emigrated thither from Berár, and who, with the usual attachment of the people to their original patrimony, were anxious to return on any suitable opportunity. Thus hundreds of families and thousands of individuals immigrated back into Berár. Many villages in the Nágpur country lost many of their hands in this way, and were sometimes put to serious straits.' The American war, which shortly supervened, stimulated the cotton trade to an enormous extent in Berár; wages rapidly rose with the unprecedented demand for labour which followed; and the opening of the Great Indian Peninsula and Nizam's State Railway systems has tended still further to enhance the prosperity of the Province.

Population.—The first Census ever taken in the Province was carried out in November 1867. It disclosed a total population of 2,227,654 persons. The next regular Census, taken in February 1881, returned a population for the whole Province of 2,672,673 persons, an increase of 445,019, or nearly 20 per cent., in 14 years. Area, 17,711 square miles; towns, 34; villages, 5551; occupied houses, 466,027; unoccupied houses, 33,356; towns and villages per square mile, ·32; houses per square mile, 28. Of the total population, 1,380,492 were returned as males and 1,292,181 as females; proportion of males 51·7 per cent. The average density of the population in Berár is 151 persons per square mile,—a number higher than in any Division

of the neighbouring Central Provinces, though far below the average (416) of the North-Western Provinces. Akola stands first as regards its urban and its total population. In it and in Amráoti District, the density is over 200 to the square mile. In Wún the density is only 100. Towns and villages are most numerous in Ellichpur *táluk*, where there are 45 to each square mile; in Melghát there is only one village to every 5 square miles. There are now in Berár the same number of houses per square mile (28) as there were in England and Wales eighty years ago; the number of persons to each occupied house (5·7) is about the same in both countries. The increase in the population since 1867 is largely due to immigration from Khándesh, Haidarábád (Deccan), and the Central Provinces. It is observed by the Census authorities (1881) that although there is a tendency in the Berár population to concentrate in large villages, there is no marked tendency, except in Akola District, for the large villages to grow into towns. About 12 per cent. of the population are urban, in the sense that they inhabit towns containing more than 5000 inhabitants.

Hinduism is the religion of Berár, being professedly nearly 91 per cent. of the population. Siva is the chief deity in this region, as Vishnu is the deity of the nations on the Ganges. Among the great gods of the Hindu pantheon, Balají (an *avátar*, or incarnation, of Vishnu), Mahádeo, Ganpati, and Devi are objects of popular worship. Hanumán (the monkey god, who led the monkey host to Lanka or Ceylon in aid of Rámá) and Arjun are also worshipped. The Muhammadans, Pársís, Jains, and Christians number together about 10 per cent. of the population. According to the Census, there were in Berár in 1881—Hindus, 2,425,654; Muhammadans, 187,555; Jains, 20,020; Christians, 1335; Sikhs, 525; Pársís, 242; aborigines, 37,338; and 'others,' 4. The Hindus were thus distributed as regards caste:—Bráhmans, 65,754; Rájputs, 40,174; Khettris, 3959; Wanis (*Baniyás*), 67,071; Kunbís (agriculturists), 834,174; Málís (gardeners), 219,671; Mahars (mixed castes), 307,994; Telís (oilmen), 75,552; Dhangars (shepherds), 74,559; Banjáras (carriers), 60,511; Kolís (labourers), 30,398; Sutárs (carpenters), 30,314; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 14,265; Lohars (blacksmiths), 13,883; Vidurs (half-castes), 11,747; Kaláls (distillers), 14,943; Shimpis or Darzis (tailors), 15,509; Pardhis (huntsmen), 3008; Manbhaos (mendicants), 4111; Bairagis (mendicants), 1529; Náths (mendicants), 716; Chambhars (leather-workers), 26,885; Mahalis (barbers), 33,517; Kumbhárs (potters), 20,006; miscellaneous, 291,885; and aboriginal tribes (Bhíls, Gonds, Korkus, etc.), 163,519.

The Muhammadans were thus sub-divided according to sect:—Sunnís, 185,686; Shiahs, 1360; Wahábís, 39; and 'others,' 470; and according to tribe as follows:—Shaikhs, 125,178; Patháns, 37,633;

Sayyids, 9135; Mughals, 2788; Arabs, 25; Fakírs, 1397; 'others,' 11,399. Since 1867 the Muhammadans of Berár have increased 21 per cent.

Of the total number of Christians in Berár (1335), British-born subjects numbered 97; other British, 105; other Europeans or Americans, 12; Eurasians, 542; and natives, 579. Adopting a classification by creed, there were in 1881—Church of England, 583; Roman Catholic, 620; Presbyterian, 71; 'others,' 61. Many of the native Christians in Berár are Madrásí and Portuguese (Goanese) domestic servants. There are churches and chapels at Amráoti, Akola, and Ellichpur.

Among the Hindus the chief Sivaite sects are the Smartas (40,606), the Lingayats (19,338), and the Náths (9113): the chief Vishnuite sects are the Vaishnavas (11,933), the Bhagawats (3707), and the Manbháos (5958). The Smartas are the Bráhman followers of Sankar Achárya, the Sivaite reformer of the ninth century. The Lingayats, who worship the *linga* or emblem of Siva, are chiefly traders. Pink is their sacred colour, and every male Lingayat should wear at least one garment of this hue: for a female it matters not. *Jangam* is the term applied to the Lingayat priestly order. The sect observe no ritual and reject the doctrine of the transmigration of souls. The Náths, or 'hail-averters,' are properly cœnobite ascetics, and in early times exhibited Buddhistic leanings. They are now mostly fortune-tellers and mountebanks. The Manbháos are a Vaishnava sect, founded about two hundred years ago. Among them the re-marriage of widows is allowed. The Muhammadans are divided into Shariyat, or the ordinary followers of the Prophet's precepts, and Tariyakat, or his ascetic disciples. There are four schools of the former—Hanafis, Shafais, Hambalis, and Malikis, distinguished by different ways of using their hands in prayer. The Bohoras (Borahs) are heterodox Shiahs. Many of the Bombay traders belong to this sect. They are said to have their origin at Burhanpur, and all good Borahs desire to lay their bones in that city. The Jains in Berár are of greater antiquity than the Muhammadans, and Jain princes are said to have reigned at Kaliyán. The Jain is enjoined to perform five duties and to avoid five sins. The duties are—(1) mercy to all animated beings; (2) alms-giving; (3) venerating their sages while living and worshipping their images when deceased; (4) confession of faults; (5) and religious fasting. The sins to be avoided are—(1) killing; (2) lying; (3) stealing; (4) adultery; (5) and worldly-mindedness. The number of Jains in Berár has more than doubled since the last Census (1867). The Pársís are mostly residents of the towns; they have a fire-temple at Akola and a Tower of Silence for funeral purposes near Balápur. Many of the Pársís are in railway employment.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 distributes the adult male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 40,000; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 12,956; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, and carriers, 27,263; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 692,366; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 141,617; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 465,300.

The Province of Berár contained (1881)—2225 towns with under two hundred inhabitants; 1883, with from two to five hundred; 962, with from five hundred to one thousand; 356, with from one to two thousand; 72, with from two to three thousand; 53, with from three to five thousand; 24, with from five to ten thousand; 6, with from ten to fifteen thousand; 2, with from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 2, with from twenty to fifty thousand;—in all, 5585 towns and villages.

With regard to education, the Census of 1881 returned 27,347 males and 356 females as under instruction; 57,827 males and 789 females as not under instruction but able to read and write; and 1,295,318 males and 1,291,036 females as not under instruction and unable to read and write.

Agriculture.—The agriculturists form by far the largest part of the population of Berár. In 1881, out of every 10,000 males productively employed, 7317 were agriculturists. The common land tenure of the country is by cultivation occupancy: the exceptional tenures are known as *jágír*, *ijára*, and *inám.* The *jágírdárs* hold rent-free one or more villages under patents from the Delhi emperors, the Nizám of Haidarábád, or the Maráthá Peshwá. The number of *jágírdárs* in 1881 was 161. The villages held under this tenure occupied an area of 385,748 acres and numbered 218. The *ijárádár*, or Government lessee, farms an integral waste village, but pays no assessment for the first three years. As the land is brought under cultivation, rent has to be paid. The number of *ijárádárs* in 1881 was 64. *Ináms* are rent-free grants of fields for religious or charitable purposes—for the maintenance of temples, shrines, guest-houses, and the like. Their number in 1881 was 1437. The general occupancy tenant of Berár, known as *khatedár*, holds a surveyed and marked-off plot of land assessed at rates fixed for 30 years. The *khatedárs* hold direct from the State, and are almost absolute proprietors of their lands. Their number in 1881 was 162,540.

The Berár cultivator follows a primitive system of rotation of crops. He manures very little, though as much as he can, since he is obliged to use so much dung for fuel that he has little to spare for his fields.

Good cultivable land is never enclosed for hay and pasture, though plenty of grass is cut and stacked from wide uncultivated tracts; and the working bullocks are well fed, partly on this hay, more generally on the *joár* stalks, a little on cotton seed. Large droves of cattle, sheep, and goats graze on commons and barren wolds. From wells the cultivators irrigate patches of wheat, sugar-cane, opium, and market-garden produce. At places they obtain water from small reservoirs and surface streams, especially under the hills and to the southward. But in the Berár valley, which contains the richest land, water is scarce even for the drinking of man and beast; there is a dearth of grass and wood; hired labour is insufficient and dear.

Capital in agricultural hands is scanty. The cultivators are slowly (though surely) emerging out of chronic debt. Agriculture is supported by the good-will with which all small money-lenders invest in it, because there are no other handy investments which pay so well as lending on bond to the farmers. Cultivation is obliged to support the peasant and his family, to pay the State revenue, to return the capital invested with not less than 18 per cent. interest to the Márwárí money-lender, and to furnish the court fees on litigation whenever the rustic sees a chance of evading his bond. But the petty cultivator keeps his hold of the land; no one can make so much out of it as he can; and he is much aided by the customs of *metayer* tenancy and joint-stock co-operative cultivation, which enable him to get cattle, labour, and even a little cash on favourable terms. He is fond of arrack or the black liquor distilled from the *mahuá* flower. This he buys at from 3d. to 1s. per quart. On the whole, the Berár cultivator is lazy and easy-going, starts late to his field and returns early. Neither hope of great profits nor fear of ruin will drive him to do the full day's work which is extracted from the English farm labourer.

Three varieties of tenant are found in Berár. These are the tenant paying a money rent, the tenant paying rent in kind on the *batai* or *metayer* system of produce-partnership, and the tenant-at-will (*pot-laonidár*) who pays his rent in kind or money, the landlord meeting the revenue demand. The *metayer* tenure is very common in Berár. These are its ordinary terms—the registered occupant of the holding pays the assessment, but makes the holding entirely over to the *metayer*, and receives as rent half the crop after it has been cleaned and made ready for market. Sometimes the *metayer* deducts the seed before dividing the grain. The *metayer* finds all the necessaries for cultivation. In 1881, the number of *metayer* tenures was 9503.

The average size of a holding in Berár was 24 acres in 1870, and 42 acres in 1881. The area actually under crops in 1881–82 was estimated at 6,641,023 acres, and 6,567,323 acres in 1882–83. *Joár* and cotton are the staple crops of the Province, occupying respectively 34·6 and

32·5 per cent. of the entire cultivated area in the latter year. The other principal crops are wheat (11·3 per cent.) and inferior grains, oil-seeds and fibres. Sugar-cane and tobacco are also grown to a small extent. Only 47,163 acres were under irrigation in 1882–83. The cultivation of wheat and linseed is said to be extending in the Province. The cultivation of the poppy for opium was prohibited in 1878–79, and opium for consumption has since that year been imported by rail, and only to the towns of Amráoti and Khamgáon. The amount of licensed opium imported in 1882 was 44,380 lbs., and paid an import duty of £22,190. The consumption, on an average, of every 100 of the population is 1 lb. 9 oz. of the drug. *Gánja*, an intoxicating preparation of hemp, is also cultivated, chiefly for the use of religious mendicants. Area under *gánja* was 143 acres in 1881, and 89 acres .n 1882. There is a Government farm at Akola, where numerous interesting agricultural experiments have been carried out. The area under the different crops is thus shown in 1882–83:—*Joár*, 2,276,220 acres; *bájra*, 92,322 acres; wheat, 746,391 acres; rice, 22,827 acres; gram, 177,893 acres; linseed, 397,639 acres; *til*, 147,391 acres; hemp, 8898 acres; tobacco, 24,722 acres; sugar-cane, 4530 acres; cotton, 2,139,188 acres; and miscellaneous produce, the remainder. The average rental of cotton land is 1s. 11d. per acre; wheat and oil-seed land, 2s. to 2s. 3d.; tobacco land, 3s. 4d.; and land under sugar-cane, 8s. 8½d. per acre. The yield per acre of the different crops is as follows:—Rice, 161 lbs.; wheat, 305 lbs.; *joár*, 374 lbs.; gram, 258 lbs.; cotton (cleaned), 51 lbs.; oil-seeds, 164 lbs.; and tobacco, 287 lbs. These figures refer to 1881–82. The statistics for 1882–83 are as follows:—Average rental of land for cotton, 2s.; oil-seeds, 1s. 11d.; tobacco, 3s. 1d.; *joár*, 2s.; wheat, 2s. 2d.; rice, 2s. 1d.; and the yield per acre of rice, 287 lbs.; wheat, 470 lbs.; *joár*, 374 lbs.; gram, 296 lbs.; cotton (cleaned), 44 lbs.; oil-seeds, 380 lbs.; and tobacco, 422 lbs.

Average prices of produce in 1881–82 were returned as follows:—Clean cotton, 45s. per cwt.; wheat, 5s. 4d. per cwt.; gram, 4s. per cwt.; rice, 10s. 2d. per cwt.; *joár*, 3s. 4d. per cwt.; oil-seeds, 7s. 2d. per cwt.; and tobacco, 32s. per cwt. Wages in the same year varied from 1s. 3d. to 2s. a day for skilled labour, and from 4d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled labour.

Manufactures and Trade.—A rich agricultural Province like Berár finds it more profitable to raise raw produce to pay for imported manufactures, than to pursue manufactures of its own. Cotton cloth, chiefly of the coarser kinds, some stout carpets, and *chárjámahs*, or saddles, are made within the Province. A little silk-weaving goes on, and the dyes are good at certain places. At Dewalghát, near Buldána, steel is forged of fair quality. Nágpur supplies fine

cloths; nearly all articles of furniture or luxury come from the west.

During 1882–83, there were 16 steam cotton-presses at work in Berár, and 1 oil-press worked by steam. The cotton-presses turned out 282,888 bales of cotton; and the oil-press 27,701 gallons of oil. The presses are superintended by 14 Europeans, and afford employment to—men, 961; women, 120. There are also hand-looms throughout the Province, but the indigenous unskilled handicrafts cannot compete with English and Bombay made piece-goods. The following statement shows the value of the imports and exports in 1881–82:—

TRADE OF BERAR IN 1881–82.

	Value of Imports	Value of Exports.	Total Value.
By Railway.			
Great Indian Peninsula Railway, .	£1,309,026	£3,245,702	£4,554,728
East Indian Railway, ...	198,119	26,649	224,768
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, ...	39,421	3,198	42,619
Holkar State Railway, . . .	49,635	8,662	58,297
Madras Railway, ...	2,495	15,898	18,393
Nizám's State Railway, . . .	6,160	2,611	8,771
Wardhá Valley State Railway, . .	16,799	4,117	20,916
Nágpur Branch Great Indian Peninsula Railway, ...	121,095	31,147	152,242
Chhattisgarh State Railway, . .	117,535	9,111	126,646
Total Railway-borne trade, .	£1,860,285	£3,347,095	£5,207,380
By Road.			
Nizám's Dominions, ...	240,616	109,252	349,868
GRAND TOTAL, ...	£2,100,903*	£3,456,348*	£5,557,252*

* The corresponding statistics for 1882–83 are as follows:—Value of imports, £2,715,944; value of exports, £3,452,679; total value, £6,168,623.

Of the total value of the goods imported (1881–82) into the Province, 88 per cent. were conveyed by rail, and 12 per cent. by road. Similarly of the exports, 96·5 per cent. were conveyed by rail, and 3·5 per cent. by road. In 1882–83, the railroad carried 83 per cent. of the imports, and 89 per cent. of the exports. The chief imports are rice, salt, sugar, spices, cocoa-nuts, liquors, cotton twist, piece-goods, silk fabrics, coals, oil, timber, and gunny-bags; chief exports—raw cotton, wheat, and oil-seeds. The bulk of the Berár trade is with Bombay and Districts lying west of the Province, and next in order with the Central Provinces. The two principal marts are Amráoti and Khamgáon. The

internal trade is mostly carried on at weekly markets and annual fairs. Of the latter there are 31, the most crowded being that of Deulgáon in Buldána District.

The following quantities of goods were exported and imported in 1881-82 and 1882-83:—Imports (1881-82)—1,629,171 *maunds*, viz. by rail, 1,285,059; and by road, 344,112: exports—4,421,710 *maunds*, viz. by rail, 4,341,946; and by road, 79,764. Imports (1882-83)—3,102,454 *maunds*, viz. by rail, 1,611,126; and by road, 1,491,328: exports—4,402,510 *maunds*, viz. by rail, 4,209,270; and by road, 193,240.

Administration.—The Province of Berár is administered under the orders of the Resident of Haidarábád, by one Revenue and Fiscal Commissioner, and one Judicial Commissioner. It is now divided for purposes of administration into 6 Districts, which are again sub-divided into 22 *tahsíls*, or revenue and judicial Sub-divisions, with an average area of 810 square miles each. There are no tributary or feudatory States, and no Government or wards' estates in the Province. The Revenue Commissioner is the head of the local administration, while the Judicial Commissioner exercises the powers of a Civil and Sessions Judge, and superintends the working of the courts of justice in all their departments, subject to such instructions and limitations as the Resident may from time to time prescribe. As the sovereignty is that of a native prince, the Acts of the Indian Legislature in force in Berár are made to apply by order of the Governor-General in Council in his executive capacity, on the recommendation of the Resident. The Resident at the Court of Haidarábád stands in the position of Chief Commissioner of Berár, directly subordinate to the Government of India. The other administrative officers of the Province are — 6 Deputy Commissioners, 17 Assistant Commissioners, 9 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 Inspector-General of Police, who is also Inspector-General of Jails and Registration, 6 District Superintendents of Police, 2 Assistant Superintendents of Police, 1 Sanitary Commissioner, who is also Inspector-General of Dispensaries and Vaccination, 6 Civil Surgeons, 1 Director of Public Instruction, 1 Conservator of Forests, 3 Assistant Conservators of Forests, and 1 Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests. There were 60 Magistrates in 1882, and 69 in 1883, most of them exercising civil and revenue powers. The average distance of each village from the nearest court is 28 miles.

The principal towns of Berár are AMRAOTI, 23,550; AKOLA, 16,614; AKOT, 16,137; ANJANGAON, 9842; BALAPUR, 11,244; BASIM, 11,576; DEVALGAON, 7025; ELLICHPUR, 26,728; HIWARKHED, 7300; JALGAON, 10,392; KARINJA, 10,923; KHAMGAON, 12,390; KARASGAON, 7330; MALKAPUR, 8152; PARATWARA, 9445; PATHUR, 7219; SENDURJANA,

8501; SHEGAON, 11,079; YEOTMAL, 2420. The following are municipalities:—Amráoti, Akola, Khámgáon, Shegáon, Ellichpur, and Basím. Total municipal population, 101,937 in 1881. The total number of committee men was 87, of whom 37 were Europeans; 43 were non-officials. Income, £10,332 in 1881, and £10,922 in 1882; market dues in 1882 contributed £3034, and town fund, £2662. The town fund is a tax on trades and professions. Incidence of municipal taxation in 1882, 8½d. per head.

Maráthí is the vernacular of the Province, except in a small tract in the south-east corner, where Telugu is spoken.

The land revenue demand in 1881–82 was £635,775, and the gross revenue £847,766. Subjoined is a table showing the contributions to these totals from the several Districts, with the population of each as ascertained by the Census of 1881:—

AREA, POPULATION, AND REVENUE OF BERAR IN 1881–82.

Name of District.	Area in Sq. Miles, 1881.	Land Revenue, 1881–82.	Gross Revenue, 1881–82.	Population in 1881.
Akola,	2,660	£178,752	£241,218	592,792
Buldána,	2,804	95,491	117,066	439,763
Básim,	2,958	59,842	72,084	358,883
Amráoti,	2,759	157,567	215,817	575,328
Ellichpur,	2,623	91,809	122,569	313,805
Wún,	3,907	52,314	79,012	392,102
GRAND TOTAL,	17,711	£635,775	£847,766	2,672,673

In 1882–83 the land revenue amounted to £638,716, and the gross revenue to £955,753. The total expenditure in the same year was £892,894, of which £336,260 were spent on the military establishments (Haidarábád Contingent), £368,858 on the civil administration, and £122,549 on public works and railways. The receipts from railways in 1882–83 amounted to £37,509, or 3 per cent. on the capital (£1,222,779) invested, as against 2·3 per cent. in 1881, and 1·8 per cent. in 1880. Passengers carried, 401,085 in 1882; goods carried, 89,293 tons in the same year.

From the very outset the work of education in the Assigned Districts seems to have been fostered by Government without any local assistance. No independent exertion on the part of the people preceded the introduction of the State system; and great difficulty has been experienced in obtaining the support of the leading individuals, whether in town or village. The school-going male population (between 4 and 15 years) is estimated at 321,432, for whom there are (1882) 896 schools of all kinds, with 35,891 scholars. There is thus 1 school for every 19 square miles of area, and 11 per cent. of

the school-going male population is under instruction. The number of schools has risen from 224 in 1867 to 896 in 1882. Of the 896 schools in the latter year, 477 are Government, with 28,950 scholars; 212 are aided, with 4269 scholars; and 207 are unaided, with 2672 scholars. Of the Government schools, 2 are high schools, 5 middle-class schools, and the rest primary schools. There is one normal school, with 79 pupils. In 1883, the number of schools had slightly decreased, but not the number of pupils:—number of schools (1883), 889; number of pupils, 36,278. In 1883, the average number of pupils to each school was 40. The ratio of female pupils to the female school-going population was ·3. In point of education, Wún District is now most behind-hand, having one school to every 50 square miles of area; while in Akola District there is one school to every 10 square miles. The expenditure on education in Berár was £33,931 in 1881–82, and £35,683 in 1882–83. Of the latter sum, an educational cess supplied £9564, and voluntary subscriptions £12. School fees amounted to £2212. There are 114 gymnasiums in the province. It is noted with satisfaction by the educational authorities that the higher and lower caste pupils are beginning to mingle more freely in the class-rooms.

The police force in 1881–82 consisted of 2636 officers and men, costing £49,780, of which £48,086 was debited to Provincial and £1694 to municipal funds. These figures show one policeman to every 1015 of the population. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 74. There is no organized police force in the Melghát, where the Gond Rájás receive an allowance for keeping order. Of the regular police of Berár, 1298 are provided with firearms. Number of persons arrested by the police (1880), 8718; convicted, 5204. The number arrested in 1882 was 3676; convicted, 2629.

Haidarábád (*Hyderábád*).—District in the Province of Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between 24° 13′ and 27° 15′ N. lat., and between 67° 51′ and 69° 22′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Khairpur State; on the east by the Thar and Párkar District; on the south by the same tract and the river Kori; and on the west by the river Indus and Karáchi (Kurrachee) District. Area, 9030 square miles; population (1881) 754,624.

Physical Aspects.—The District is a vast alluvial plain, 216 miles long by 48 broad. Fertile along the course of the Indus, which forms its western boundary, it degenerates towards the east into sandy wastes, sparsely populated, and defying cultivation. The monotony of its great flats is relieved only by the fringe of forest which marks the course of the river, and by the avenues of trees that line the irrigation channels branching eastward from the beneficent stream. The Tando Deputy Collectorate, in the south of the District, has a special feature

in its large natural watercourses, called *dhoras*, and basin-like shallows, or *chhaus*, which retain the rain for a time sufficient to nourish the hardy *babúl* trees on their margins. In the Haidarábád *táluk*, a limestone range, called the Gánja, and the pleasant frequency of garden lands, break the unvaried landscape. Except in these two divisions, the District is an unrelieved plain; its western side, however, intersected by canals; its eastern, beyond the limits of artificial irrigation, a sandy waste. The soil, wherever irrigated, is very fertile. The chief indigenous forest trees are the *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), *ním* (Azadirachta Indica), *táli* or blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), *sirih* (Albizzia lebbek), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), *báhan* (Populus euphratica), *bar* (Ficus Indica), *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera), *gedúri* (Cordia latifolia), *babúl* (Acacia Arabica), with several varieties of tamarisks. In a District so grudgingly treated by Nature, an extensive fauna is not to be looked for. The hyæna, wolf, fox, jackal, the smaller deer, and the hog almost complete the list of wild animals. Among birds, the *tilúr* (lesser bustard) is remarkable, and most of the wild duck and water-fowl of Europe are to be met with during the cold season. Venomous reptiles abound. The Indus supplies a great variety of fish, one of which, the *pala*, is said to be peculiar to this river.

History.—The history of Sind, since 1768, centres in this District, for all the events of the last century affected more or less nearly Haidarábád, the modern capital of the Province. Under its old name of Nerankot, this city was, in the 8th century, sufficiently important to be the first object of Muhammad Kásim's invasion of Lower Sind. A hundred years later, Ghulám Sháh, the Kalhora chief, burst out from the desert, overthrew his usurping brothers, and made Nerankot, then renamed Haidarábád, his capital. Thenceforth this District assumes a foremost place in Provincial history. Under the Tálpur dynasty it remained the leading State; and within its limits were fought the battles of Miáni (Meeanee) and Dabo, which decided (1843) in the British favour the fate of Sind. Its local history is, however, so mixed up with that of the Province, that little could be here said of it separately which will not more properly find a place under the history of SIND. The area and boundaries of the District have not been changed since 1861; but prior to that date, the Umarkot District (now under the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendent) and a large portion of the eastern delta (now part of the Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate) were included within Haidarábád. The *parganás* of Kandiáro and Nausháhro were resumed by Government in 1852, from the domains of Mir Alí Murád of Khairpur, on his public conviction for forgery and fraud, and transferred to this Collectorate.

Population.—According to the general Census of 1872, the population of Haidarábád District was divided as follows:—Muhammadans,

560,349; Hindus, 118,652; other creeds and tribes, 44,882; total, 723,883. The Census of 1881 returned the population as follows:—Males, 407,243; females, 347,381; total, 754,624 persons, dwelling on an area of 9030 square miles, in 2 towns and 1103 villages, and occupying 150,488 houses. Number of persons per square mile, 83; villages per square mile, 0·12; houses per square mile, 21; persons per house, 5·0. Classified according to religion, there were 89,114 Hindus, 594,485 Muhammadans, principally of the Sunní sect (583,604); 428 Christians, 144 Jains, 21 Pársís, 31 Jews, 42,940 Sikhs, and 27,461 aborigines. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans number 2739; Rájputs, 571; Lohánas, 72,797; other Hindu castes, 13,007.

Of the Muhammadans, more than three-fifths, or 392,472, are Sindís of the Halpotro, Junejo, Dul, Powár, Thebo, Sumro, Sand, Katiyár, and other clans,—the descendants of the original Hindu population converted to Islám during the Ummayide dynasty of Khálífas. The Sindís have a fine *physique*, but an inferior moral character, being reputed cowardly, although quiet and inoffensive; they are looked down upon by the more warlike tribes of the District as natural serfs. Their language is Sindí, of the Sanskrit family of speech, and more closely connected with the Prákrit than either Maráthí, Hindí, Panjábí, or Bengálí. It has three dialects, all of which meet in this District as on common ground—namely, the *lari*, or dialect of Southern Sind; the *siraiki* of the north; and the *thareli*, 'the language of the desert.'

Next in point of numbers among the Muhammadans are the Balúchís (129,482), sub-divided into a great number of tribes, the chief being the Rind, Bhúgti, Chang, Tálpur, Jatoi, Laghári, Chándio, Kaloi, Khoso, Jakráni, Lashári. They are descended from the mountain tribes of Balúchistán, through whom they trace their origin to Aleppo in Syria. Their leading clan is the Rind, and its members are held by the rest of the community in high respect. Fairer in complexion than the Sindís, they are also a hardier race; honourable after their own code, and manly in field-sports. They are Sunnís by sect. More important, however, as regards social status and personal character are the Patháns (2810), found chiefly about Haidarábád and Upper Sind, with the naturalized Sayyids (14,572), divided into four families, the Bokhári, Matári, Shirázi, and Lekhiráji. Together they number in this District 17,382 persons. They are superior to the foregoing in personal appearance and morale. From their being held in great esteem by the princes of the Kalhora dynasty, they acquired considerable grants of land, which they still hold. The remaining Muhammadan classes worthy of special mention are the following:—(1) Memons, formerly Kachhí-Hindus, who emigrated to Sind under the Kalhora rule, and devoted themselves to agriculture

and cattle-breeding. They now supply a learned class, who have done more than any other to introduce sacred learning into Sind, and are accordingly held in high respect. (2) The Khwájas, fugitives from Persia when their creed (the Ismáilyeh heresy) was persecuted by Haláku Khán. They have isolated themselves from all the other Muhammadans of the District, not only by maintaining their own special tribunal in religious differences, and separate officers (Mukhi, etc.), but by the singularity of their dress, in which they avoid dark blue, the colour of the country. The Memons and Khwájas aggregate about 13,000. (3) Sídhís, natives of Maskat (Muscat), Zanzibar, and Abyssinia, who until the British Conquest were bought and sold as slaves. (4) The Shikáris or Daphers of Tando, a small number. Though Muhammadans they eat carrion, and are excluded from the mosques.

The subordinate ranks of Government service are almost exclusively recruited from the Lohános, and the vast majority of Hindu shopkeepers and traders also belong to this caste. In their complex sub-divisions, they are mixed up with the Muhammadans. Although wearing the thread, they become the disciples of Musalmán teachers, assume their dress, eat meat, drink spirits, and disregard all the customs of orthodox Hindus with regard to receiving food from inferiors, etc. Their marriage ceremonies are so expensive that many remain single till late in life.

Classified according to occupation, the males of the District were returned as follows:—Class I., or professional, 4378; Class II., or domestic, 5381; Class III., or commercial, 5114; Class IV., or agricultural, 158,886; Class V., or industrial, 44,460; and Class VI., or indefinite, 189,024. The most numerous guilds are—the *sonárs* or goldsmiths, who, owing to the popular taste for ornaments, are, as a rule, well-to-do; *mochis* or shoemakers, who will not, however, skin carcase or tan leather, but buy it from Muhammadans; *khátis* or dyers; and *hajáms* or barbers. They have all adopted the thread, intermarry only in their own castes, and have no priests but Bráhmans. Nevertheless they are held in Sind in no higher estimation than elsewhere.

Bráhmans of pure descent are not numerous in Haidarábád, their aggregate number being under 4000; but their acknowledged superiority to the castes around them invests their small community with importance and interest. They are divided into two chief septs, which do not intermarry — the Pokárno and Sársudh. The former are the more orthodox Hindus, refusing flesh, wearing the turban and never the Sind cap, reading Sanskrit, abstemious in habit, and employing themselves only in instructing the Hindus in their religious duties, or deciding for them questions of horoscope and ceremonial. The Sársudh, though not abstaining

altogether from meat, conform sufficiently to the traditional usages of high-caste Hinduism to be held in great respect, not only by inferior castes of Hindus, but also by the Sikhs. The Sikhs so called are in reality a nondescript class, recruited from both Hindus and Muhammadans, containing, however, a percentage of veritable followers of Nának. They are divided into two well-defined sects, the Loháno Sikh and the Akali or Khálsa, which differ in certain details of food and shaving the hair. Their devotions are conducted in the Punjábí language, and their holy books, the *Adi Granth*, etc., are in the guardianship of appointed *udhásis*, in special *dharmsálás*. The religious mendicant classes of the District are those of India generally—the yellow-clothed Sanyásis, Jogís, and Gosáins, who subsist by begging and by the sale of amulets and written charms. All the Hindus, except the mendicants, who are either buried or thrown into the river, according to their testamentary wish, burn their dead with complex funeral rites.

In attire, dwellings, and food, the people of Haidarábád do not differ from the general population of the Province. Both Muhammadans and Hindus are addicted to *gánja*, an intoxicating preparation of hemp; and the lowest classes of the latter consume country spirits largely. Opium is much used, and its use is said to be on the increase. As regards occupation, the Hindus of the District may be called the shopkeeping class; the Muhammadans, the artisan and agricultural. The Hindu Baniyá is astute in business, supple with his superiors, industrious, timid; the Muhammadan is idle, improvident, and often licentious, but more independent and outspoken, and of a finer *physique*. The two chief towns of the District are Haidarábád, population (1881) 48,153 (including the cantonment population, 2958), and Mátári (5054). Of the towns and villages of the District, 257 contained under 200 inhabitants, 141 from 200 to 500, 497 from 500 to 1000, 164 from 1000 to 2000, 24 from 2000 to 3000, 17 from 3000 to 5000, 4 from 5000 to 10,000, and one over 20,000 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, nearly one-third is uncultivable; 3,678,544 acres are cultivable though not cultivated, and 1,060,520 are (1881–82) under cultivation. In 1882–83, the area cultivable but not cultivated was 2,277,832 acres; area cultivated, 997,628 acres; fallow, 320,144 acres. Agriculture in Haidarábád is entirely dependent upon artificial irrigation, and is regarded as a lottery in which the cultivator stakes his labour and seed on the chance of getting an exactly suitable flood. If the water rises too high, or not sufficiently high, the cultivator loses his crop. Wells of great depth are used to irrigate garden land. There are in the District 325 canals, all of which are Government property. In addition to these, there are numerous smaller canals and water-

courses, the property of *jágírdárs* and *zamíndárs.* Forty of the Government canals are main channels, which tap the Indus direct; the remainder are connecting branches. The revenue derived from this source is very steady, never having risen above £104,514 nor fallen below £93,423 between the years 1864 and 1874. The cost of clearance has, however, been equally regular, and during the same decade has reduced the net annual income by an average of £22,000.

The irrigation carried on in the District by means of canals may be divided into three classes — (1) 'Lift,' where the water has to be raised from the river or from a canal by means of machinery; (2) 'Flow,' where during the inundation the water from a canal flows by gravitation through side channels over lands favourably situated; (3) 'Spill,' where the land lies so low as to be subject to uncontrolled inundation during the rise of the river. These three classes are known in Sindhí as (1) *charkhi*, (2) *mok*, (3) *sailáb*. The first mode is, of course, the most expensive, but it is also by far the most certain, and the greater portion of the *kharíf* crops (with the exception of rice) is irrigated by this method. The second affords during favourable inundations facilities for raising much larger crops with the same amount of capital, and with less labour than is possible with 'lift.' In an unfavourable inundation, however, 'flow' has often to be supplemented by 'lift,' and if this be not done, the failure, partial or total, of the crop is the result. The third is risky to a great degree, and is rarely had recourse to for *kharíf* cultivation, except in the case occasionally of rice lands. Excellent *rabí* crops are, however, raised on *sailáb* lands, the area available for such cultivation being, of course, entirely dependent on the character of the inundation. Unless a canal fails to carry its proper supply, a thing happily of rare occurrence, irrigation by 'lift,' or by 'flow with lift,' may be looked on as practically quite safe. Irrigation by 'unaided flow' is always more or less risky; whilst the cultivation of *sailáb* lands partakes to a great extent of the nature of a lottery, in which, however, prizes are not infrequent.

Three varieties of the Persian wheel are in use—(1) the *nál* or Persian wheel proper, for the working of which one pair of bullocks or a single camel is required; (2) the *hurlo*, a modified form of the Persian wheel, for which one bullock is sufficient; (3) the *peráti* (rarely met with), which is worked by the feet. The relative powers of the three are as 20, 11, and 4. To keep a *nál* going day and night several pairs of bullocks or camels will be required, and so with the other varieties. In the northernmost *táluk* of the District (Kandiáro), in parts of which the water lies comparatively near the surface, there is a considerable area of wheat cultivation watered by wells. Wells here are numerous, and their number is increasing. Elsewhere in the

District, well cultivation is confined almost exclusively to garden lands. The area under garden produce in 1882-83 was 5073 acres.

The canals begin to fill about May in proportion to the annual rise of the Indus, and are again dry by October; some are, however, in a fair way of becoming perennial.

Only two crop seasons are recognised by the Revenue Department, namely, the *kharíf* or inundation crop, sown from May to July, and reaped from September to November; and the *rabí* or spring crop, sown in November and December, and reaped in March and April. The *kharíf* crop occupied in 1882-83 an area of 937,716 acres; and the *rabí*, 40,501 acres. Of the *kharíf* area, 716,072 acres were irrigated by 'lift;' 42,186 acres by 'flow;' and 179,459 acres were under rice. Of the *rabí* area, 1845 acres were irrigated by 'lift;' while of the remaining *rabí* area, 38,656 acres were irrigated by 'spill,' or the *sailáb* method. When heavy rain falls, either *kharíf* or *rabí* crops, or both, according to the time of the rainfall, are raised on lands thus saturated. This is called *baráni* cultivation. In the vast tracts of waste lands lying to the eastward of the District, and untouched by canal water, extensive dams of earth are thrown up in favourable situations to intercept the drainage and so secure the more perfect saturation of the soil lying above them. Cultivation thus carried on is called *bandh baráni.* In 1882-83, the area under the *baráni* methods of irrigation was 12,592 acres. The *kharíf* crops are *joár*, *bájra*, *tíl* (sesamum), rice, cotton, sugar-cane, hemp, tobacco, water-melons, and indigo. The *rabí* crops are wheat, barley, oil-seeds, pulses, and vegetables. The area under *joár* in 1882-83 was 80,463 acres; *bájra*, 190,166 acres; oil-seeds, 54,836 acres; rice, 86,146 acres; cotton, 42,587 acres; sugar-cane, 1359 acres; tobacco, 4333 acres; and indigo, 6088 acres. In the same year the area under wheat was 35,702 acres; barley, 1302 acres; pulses, 14,942 acres. Of the whole area under cultivation, 6428 acres were twice cropped in 1882-83. Haidarábád is the largest cotton-producing area in Sind. The number of cwts. raised was 80,507 in 1881-82, and 83,900 in 1882-83. The average yield per acre may, approximately, be taken as follows in cwts. :—Rice, 5; *joár*, 6; *bájra*, 5; cotton (uncleaned), 2; *tíl*, 3½; tobacco, 6½; sugar-cane (*gur*), 30; wheat, 5½; pulses, 3. Prices current in 1882-83 were as follows per 80 lbs. :—Wheat, 6s.; barley, 3s. 5d.; rice, 4s. 9d.; *bájra*, 3s. 4d.; *joár*, 3s.; salt, 6s. 1½d.; *dál*, 8s.; *ghí*, or clarified butter, £2, 8s. 4d. The cultivators of Haidarábád do not follow any regular method of rotation in their crops. Their implements are of the usual primitive kind, and correspond in general character to the European plough, harrow, spade, hoe, drill, and sickle. The agricultural stock of the District in 1882-83 included buffaloes, cows, camels, horses, sheep, and goats. The rates of daily wages are—

for skilled labour, 1s. 6d., and for unskilled, 7½d. The daily hire for a camel is 1s. 1½d.; for a pack-bullock, 9d.; and for a cart, 3s.

The land tenures of the District are simple. Broadly divided, all land is either 'assessed' or 'alienated.' In the former case, the land is cultivated either by the *zamíndár* himself, or by occupancy holders and tenants-at-will. The occupancy holder (*maurasi hári*) is really an hereditary cultivator, for his rights are heritable and transferable; and the *zamíndár*, except as regards the actual payment of rent, has no power over him. The tenant-at-will (*ghair maurasi*) is legally the creature of the *zamíndár;* but the large landholders in the District do not exercise their powers oppressively. The *zamíndár's* own tenure is hardly more definite here than elsewhere in India, and whatever of certainty it possesses is owing entirely to British legislation.

In the second class of lands (the alienated) there are four chief varieties, each having sub-divisions, viz. *jágírs*, *pattídárís*, charitable grants, garden and forest grants. The *jágírs* of the District at the first settlement under British rule were computed at 40 per cent. of the total area, but now only about one-sixth of the whole is alienated. The *jágírs* are officially classified according as they are permanent and heritable, for two lives only, or merely life grants. All alike are subject to a cess of 5 per cent. for local purposes, and some pay besides to Government a percentage of the produce assessed according to their class, the maximum being one-fourth. *Pattídárí* grants, which are of Afghan origin, exist only in the Nausháhro sub-division. They obtained recognition at the settlement from the long possession of the then incumbents, dating, in the majority of cases, from the first reclamation from waste or purchase from the earliest proprietors. The total area held on charitable grants is not great. Garden grants are held free of assessment or at a nominal rate, so long as the gardens are properly maintained; and, in the same way, *húrís* or tree-plantation (not orchard) grants are held revenue-free so long as the land is exclusively reserved for forest growth. *Seri* grants are those made in consideration of official services.

For the purposes of assessment, villages are classified into six varieties, the maximum rates in each ranging as follows:—On land perennially irrigated, from 1s. 6d. to 9s.; on *sailábi* lands, from 1s. to 7s.; on *mok* lands, from 1s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.; on land irrigated by wheel for part of the year only, from 1s. to 4s. The average rate per acre on cultivable land is about 1s. 5d. Under the revised settlements, villages are grouped into four classes, the maximum and average rates per acre being as follows:—Class I., maximum rate, 10s. 9d.; average rate, 5s. 2¼d. Class II., 9s. 6d. and 4s. 6½d.; Class III., 8s. 6d. and 4s. 0½d.; Class IV., 7s. 6d. and 3s. 6¾d. Formerly the Government assessment was levied in kind, but since 1851 the payment has been

received in cash. The *zamíndárs*, however, are paid by the tenants in kind at the following rates :—On land under *charkhi* cultivation, one-third of the produce; on *mok* and *sailábi* lands, two-thirds. In the case of the best lands, yielding cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, etc., the *zamíndár* receives his rent, as a rule, in money.

Manufactures and Trade.—The manufactures of the District maintain the excellence for which they have been famous from early times. The Haidarábád *táluk* in particular still enjoys much of its old pre-eminence for lacquered work, enamelling (the secret, it is said, of one family only), and gold and silver embroidery. In the fighting days of the Mírs, the arms of Haidarábád were also held in the highest esteem; but owing to the reduced demand for chain armour, shields, and sabres under British rule, the trade is now in abeyance. In the Hála Sub-division special features of the local industry are striped and brilliant cloths known as *súsi*, *khes*, and also glazed pottery. This effective work is turned to various ornamental purposes, especially tiling, and is remarkable for excellence of both glaze and colour. In nearly all the villages of the District, some manufacture is carried on; blankets, coarse cotton cloths, camel saddles, and metal work being perhaps the most prevalent.

The total number of fairs is 33, and the average attendance at each about 5000; they last from three to eighteen days.

The transit trade of the District is considerable. The returns for Hála and Tando show totals in the money value of the goods in transit of £190,000 and £90,000 respectively; but returns for the other two Sub-divisions of the District—namely, Haidarábád and Nausháhro—are not available. The municipality of Haidarábád derives an annual income of £12,000, of which £10,000 is received from octroi.

Salt of excellent quality, and in considerable quantity, is found in Tando; but the deposits are not allowed to be worked.

Means of Communication, etc.—The roads of the District aggregate 1925 miles in length, of which 263 are trunk roads, metalled, bridged, and marked with milestones. The Sind Railway does not actually enter the District, but touches at Kotri, on the opposite bank of the Indus to Gidu-Bandar (3½ miles from Haidarábád), where a steam ferry connects Haidarábád with Kotri. The only telegraph station in the District is at Haidarábád, the chief town, which is in communication with Karáchi on the south-west; with Multán *via* Kotri; and with Disa (Deesa) *via* Umarkot on the south-east. Postal communication is represented by 1 disbursing station (at Haidarábád), 11 branch offices, and 14 sub-offices. The ferries number in all 48, one (at Gidu) being a steam ferry. A small income is derived from this source, the returns for 1880–81 being £477. There are in the District, 21 travellers' bungalows and 50 *dharmsálás*, or native rest-houses.

Administration.—The chief revenue and magisterial authority of Haidarábád District is vested in a Collector and Magistrate, who is assisted by 4 Assistant Collectors, for the Hála, Tando Muhammad Khán, Nausháhro, and Haidarábád Sub-divisions respectively, besides a Huzúr Deputy Collector permanently stationed at the city of Haidarábád. A Cantonment Magistrate has been recently appointed in addition. The District and Sessions Judge holds sessions at the towns of Haidarábád, Sakrand, Hála, and Tando Muhammad Khán several times in the year, and at Umarkot in the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency once a year. In each Sub-division there is a subordinate judge with powers up to cases involving £500. Three of these judges visit certain specified places for a limited period once yearly. The subordinate revenue staff consists of 13 *mukhtiárkárs*, each of whom collects the revenue and exercises limited magisterial powers within the limits of a *tálúk;* and *tapádárs*, responsible for the correct measurement of lands, enumeration of irrigation-wheels, etc., each within his *tapá.*

The canal divisions are supervised by executive engineers of the Public Works Department, with suitable establishments. The northern half of the Collectorate is included in the Haidarábád canal division, the canals in the southern making up the Fuleli division.

The crimes most prevalent throughout the District are cattle-stealing, thefts, burglaries. The total of all offences during 1880–81 was 5610, of which about 1500 fall under the above three heads. In 1881–82, the total number was 3527, of which 2383 fell under these three heads. It is noteworthy that in the Tando courts the Hindus filed against Muhammadans twice as many civil suits as against Hindus, and that the Muhammadans filed ten times as many against Hindus as against their co-religionists.

The police force of Haidarábád District is under the charge of a European District Superintendent, with head-quarters at Haidarábád, and consists of the following:—District police (including 100 horse and 37 camel police), 581; town police, 126; total, 707 men, including 4 inspectors, 19 chief and 92 head constables. There is therefore 1 policeman to every 12·7 square miles and to every 1070 of the entire population. Excluding the police of the city and cantonment of Haidarábád, the proportion of the purely District police is 1 policeman to every 15·9 square miles of country, and to every 1221 of the rural population.

The revenue of the District is derived chiefly from the land. The following is a statement of the average net land revenue for four successive periods of six years each—1856–62, £107,506; 1862–68, £106,670; 1868–74, £111,655; 1874–80, £115,986. The receipts from the farm of liquor-shops has shown a steady advance from £3126 in 1856–57 to £11,400 in 1881–82, but in 1882–83 the receipts fell to

£9342. There is but one distillery (at Haidarábád city), and the number of farmers' shops is 147. Since 1863, all farms for the sale of liquor are sold by public auction to the highest bidder. During the same period (1856 to 1874), the number of European liquor-shops has risen from 1 to 6, and the receipts from £1, 10s. to £60. The drug revenue, which in 1856 realized £1618, had risen by 1882–83 to £5827, including £4019 from opium. The number of shops for drugs is 183, and for opium 114. Neither the imperial nor the local revenue of the District shows much variation during the past sixteen years, the former being in 1864, £137,112, and in 1880–81, £164,340; the latter in 1864, £10,326, in 1874, £12,434, and in 1880–81, £11,674. In 1882–83, the gross imperial revenue of the District was £141,475, of which £137,243 was land revenue. This disproportion in the increase of local, as compared with imperial revenue, is due to the fact that formerly the one anna cess was levied on *ábkári* revenue, but as this was illegal, the practice has been discontinued.

The Local Fund revenue is made up from three taxes, levied under Act viii. of 1865—viz. the 1 anna cess (about 6 per cent.), the 3 per cent. *jágír* cess for roads, and the 2 per cent. *jágír* cess for schools. The forests in the District—32 in number—occupy an area of 133 square miles, and yield an annual revenue of £12,000. In 1880–81 the revenue was £8557, the falling off being due to the fact that no firewood is now required for the Indus Flotilla steamers.

The only jail in the District is at Haidarábád city; average daily population, 500; cost of prisoners, about £5 each per annum; rate of mortality, 7·6 per cent. There are 3 first-class sub-jails, viz. at Nausháhro, Hála, and Tando Muhammad Khán, and 1 second-class at Mírpur. Jailors are provided for first-class sub-jails on Rs. 15 or £1, 10s. each per mensem, and prisoners sentenced to three months' imprisonment and under are detained in these jails. The second *munshi* of the *táluk* office is *ex officio* jailor of the second-class sub-jail, and he receives an allowance of 10s. per mensem. Prisoners sentenced to one month and under are confined in this class of sub-jail. Lock-ups are attached to the head-quarters station of each *mukhtiárkár*.

The total number of Government schools for boys has risen from 21 in 1868 to 105 in 1881–82, and the number of pupils from 1355 to 5348; the number of girls' schools during the same period has increased from 10 to 12, and the pupils from 262 to 368. These figures include the returns for the high, normal, engineering, and Anglo-vernacular schools in Haidarábád city, where also the Church Missionary Society supports a school with about 100 pupils. Little seems to be known of the private indigenous schools, but, with two exceptions, they are of a very inferior kind.

The fisheries of the District yielded in 1880–81 a revenue of £1475.

They are carried on, not only in the Indus, but also in the Fuleli river and some of the *dhandhs* and *kolábs* or natural reservoirs in which the flood waters are retained. The *pala* fish is the staple of the Indus fisheries, and for a part of the year forms the principal food of the people.

The municipalities of the District are 14 in number, deriving their revenue from *octroi* dues, licence fees, market tolls, cattle pound fees, etc., and expending their income upon conservancy, lighting, police, public works, and grants-in-aid to local education. The municipal statistics in each of the four Sub-divisions are as follows:—Hála, 6 municipalities, with incomes ranging from £202 to £704; Haidarábád, 2, viz. that of the city with an income of £12,000, and another with an income of £115; Tando, 1, with an income of £744; Nausháhro, 5, with incomes ranging from £94 to £174.

Climate.—Considerable variations of climate obtain within the District. In the north, the hot season of April and May is followed by two months of flood, the rest of the year being cold and dry. In the central tract, including Hála and the Haidarábád *táluk*, the cold season succeeds the hot without any intervening inundations to graduate the transition; and the change occurs sometimes with such suddenness that, to quote a local saying, 'sunstroke and frost-bite are possible in one and the same day.' In the south, the temperature is more equable throughout the year, 60° F. and 100° representing the extremes. Following these climatic variations, the medical aspects of the District vary, the fevers so frequent in the northern division being almost unknown in the southern portion, where there are no floods to leave marsh land behind them. The rainfall average of five years ending 1881 is 8 inches per annum, the local distribution being—Hála $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches, Haidarábád $6\frac{3}{4}$, Tando Muhammad Khán 4, Nausháhro $5\frac{1}{4}$ inches. The rainfall at Haidarábád city in 1881 was 6·37 inches. In 1869 there was an extraordinary fall of 20 inches all over the District. The same year is memorable for an outbreak of epidemic cholera, and in Haidarábád *táluk* of severe fever. In normal years, the District is healthy as compared with other parts of India. Fevers, however, are very prevalent in September and October, when the inundations cease and the canals are drying up; and they last till the northerly winds set in. Dispensaries (excluding Haidarábád Civil Hospital) are 7 in number, with an annual admission of 18,583 patients, of whom about 300 are in-door. Besides these institutions, there is at Haidarábád a civil and police hospital, a convict hospital (in the jail), and a charitable dispensary, with (1883) 26,797 admissions, 828 being in-door patients.

Haidarábád (*Hyderábád*).—One of the four Sub-divisions of Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 25° 10′

and 25° 31′ N. latitude, and between 68° 19′ and 68° 41′ E. longitude; bounded on the north and east by the Hála Sub-division; on the west by the river Indus; and on the south by Tando. Area, 404 square miles, or 258,560 acres, of which 80,817 were cultivated in 1880–81. Population, according to Census of 1881, 103,025, or 255 to the square mile. Of this population 5952 were returned as 'floating.' The Sub-division is divided into the 7 *tapás* of Hátri, Gúndar, Husri, Khathar, Bhindo, Káthri, and Fazal-jo-Tando; and contains 59 villages and 2 towns, viz. Haidarábád and Mátári. The general aspect of the *táluk* is more diversified than that of the rest of the District, for the low limestone hills, known as the Ganjo range, run through 13 miles of its length, and besides the extensive forests there is a large proportion of garden land. It is well provided with canals, there being 43 (all Government property), with an aggregate length of 177 miles, and yielding an average annual revenue of £7330. There are no floods or *lets* in this *táluk* except in the villages of Seri and Jám Shoro, and only one *dhandh* or natural reservoir—fed by the Núrwah channel.

The seasons, according to the native division, are four—the *kharíf*, *rabí*, *peshrás*, and *áddwas*—viz. February to March, April to July, August to October, November to January; but in average years the transition from the hot weather to the cold is so sudden that intermediate seasons can hardly be recognised. The mean yearly temperature is 80° F., varying from an average of 64° in January to 92° in June; average annual rainfall, between 6 and 8 inches. The prevailing winds are northerly from November to March, and for the rest of the year from the south, the hot wind from the desert being felt in May. The arable soils of the Sub-division do not differ from those of the rest of the District; and the only mineral peculiarity is the *met*, a kind of fuller's earth dug from mines in the Ganjo Hills, which is largely used by the natives as soap. The farm of these mines realizes a revenue of £450 per annum. The chief timber tree is the *babúl* or *babar* (Acacia Arabica), extensively grown in the forests of Miáni (Meeanee), Káthri, Ghaliúm, Khathar, and Husri, which aggregate an area of 12,070 acres, yielding to Government an annual revenue of £1837. They were all planted by the Mírs of Sind at different dates between 1790 and 1832. The three fisheries of the Sub-division (the Bádá, Sipki, and Karo Kháho) yielded an annual revenue of £813 in 1880–81.

The population of the Sub-division, 103,025, of whom 55,097 were males and 47,928 females, was divided in the Census of 1881 as follows:—Muhammadans, 67,181; Hindus, 21,293; Sikhs, 11,883; aborigines, 2240; Christians, 386; Jews, 22; and Pársís, 20.

The revenue and magisterial charge of the Sub-division is vested in an Assistant Collector, with 1 *mukhtiárkár* and 7 *tapádárs*. In the city

of Haidarábád there is also the Huzúr Deputy Collector, the Cantonment Magistrate, and the subordinate judge of the Civil Court. The police force numbers 332 men, of whom 313 are in the city, and the remainder, 19, distributed over the Sub-division in 6 *thánás* or outposts.

The revenue of the Sub-division for 1880–81 was £24,753, being £23,202 imperial and £1551 local, derived from the following sources:—Imperial—Land-tax, £8486; *abkári* or excise, £6840; stamps, £3908; registration, £264; telegraph, £707; licences, £777; postal and miscellaneous, £2220: Local—Cesses on land, £497; percentage on alienated lands, £113; ferry funds, excluding steam ferry, £124; fisheries, £814; miscellaneous, £3.

The topographical survey of the Sub-division for the purposes of settlement was completed in 1858. The prevailing tenure is the usual *zamíndári* of the District. There are in the *táluk* 40 *jágírdárs*, holding between them 53,996 acres, and paying an annual revenue of £483. A single *jágírdár*, Mír Jam Khán, holds 19,785 acres, all arable. The number of *seri* grants is 31; total area, 699 acres; and there are besides 56 *máfidárs* holding small patches rent free.

The only medical establishments, jails, post-office, and telegraph station in the District are in HAIDARABAD CITY, as are also the chief educational institutions.

Haidarábád (*Hyderábád*).—Chief town of Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 25° 23′ 5″ N., longitude 68° 24′ 51″ E. Population (1881) 48,153, including 3069 returned as 'floating,' and 2958 in cantonments. Of the total population, 21,878 are Muhammadans, 14,861 Hindus, 386 Christians, and 11,028 'others.' The municipal area is about 15 square miles. The municipal revenue (1880–81) was £12,590, and the disbursements £10,721; rate of municipal taxation, 5s. 2¼d. per head. In 1882–83 the municipal income was £12,000, and the incidence of municipal taxation 5s. per head of the municipal population. Upon the site of the present fort is supposed to have stood the ancient town of Neránkot, which in the 8th century submitted to Muhammad Kásim Sakífí. In 1768 the present city was founded by Ghulám Sháh Kalhora; and it remained the chief town of the Province until 1843, when, after the battle of Miáni (Meeanee), it surrendered to the British, and the capital was transferred to Karáchi (Kurrachee). The city is built on the most northerly hills of the Ganjo range, a site of great natural strength, 3½ miles east of the Indus, with which it is connected by the high road to Gidu-Bandar, where a steam ferry crosses the river to Kotri on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. In the fort, which covers an area of 36 acres, are the arsenal of the Province, transferred hither from Karáchi (Kurrachee) in 1861, and the palaces of the ex-Mírs of Sind.

Haidarábád is now plentifully supplied with water, which is pumped up from the Indus by powerful machinery, located on the river bank at Gidu. Thence the water passes along an aqueduct raised on masonry arches, into two large reservoirs or depositing tanks, situated about 500 yards from the river bank, each tank capable of holding 1,200,000 gallons. From these tanks the water flows by gravitation to within a short distance of the foot of the rocky plateau on which the cantonments are built; from here the water is pumped up into a stone tank on the crest of the plateau, which holds about 100,000 gallons, from which the supply for the cantonments is taken. The main conduit, passing through the plateau, discharges into a tank below the fort, from whence the water is pumped up to a point higher than the surface of the ground within the fort, and discharged through iron pipes all over the city by gravitation.

Haidarábád, as the historic capital of Sind, is the centre of all the Provincial communications — road, telegraphic, postal. From the earliest times, its manufactures — ornamented silks, silver and gold work, and lacquered ware—have been the chief of the Province, and in recent times have gained prizes at the Industrial Exhibitions of Europe. A local specialty is the manufacture of the earthen vessels, *mati*, which are used by the *pala* fishermen to buoy themselves up on the water while fishing. Statistics of local trade are not available; but, as the municipality derives an annual income of about £6000 from *octroi* dues, it must be very considerable.

The chief public buildings are the jail (capable of holding 600 convicts), the Government Anglo-vernacular school, engineering, high, and normal schools, post-office, municipal markets, court-houses, civil and police hospital, charitable dispensary, library, travellers' bungalow, and lunatic asylum. To the building of the last, Sir Cowasjee Jahángír Readymoney subscribed £5000. The barracks are built in 12 blocks, with hospitals, *bázár*, etc., to the north-west of the city. The only noteworthy antiquities are the tombs of the Kalhora and Tálpur Mírs. The Residency, memorable for its gallant defence by Sir James Outram against the Balúchís in 1843, situated 3 miles from Haidarábád, no longer exists. For history, see SIND PROVINCE.

Haidarábád.—*Parganá* of Muhamdi *tahsil*, Kheri District, Oudh. A part of the old *parganá* Bhúrwára belonging to the Ahbans and Pásis; afterwards seized by the Sayyids, and then occupied by the Gaurs, with whom a *zamíndári* settlement was effected about 1792. Since then various branches of the old Ahban family have recovered possession, and they now own the principal estates. The rest of the *zamíndárs* are retainers or followers of the Sayyids and the *chakládárs*. Along the banks of the Kathná, which forms the western boundary, the land lies very low, and is covered with jungle. The ground slowly

rises, and the cultivated tract commences about two miles from the river. The soil here is a light *domát;* but it rapidly improves, and about half a mile from the border of cultivation is of the very highest quality, producing every variety of crop, and paying high rents. The belt of villages lying across the centre of the *parganá*, most of which are the property of Government, produce sugar of great purity, which requires hardly any refining to make the clearest candy, and realizes a considerably higher price than any other in the Sháhjahánpur market. Fine groves also dot the *parganá*. Area, 98 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated. Population (1881) 40,761, namely, Hindus 34,592, and Muhammadans 6169. Land revenue, £4132. Number of villages, 108. In the south of the *parganá*, near the Kathná, are the ruins of the jungle fort of Mahmúdábád; a similar fort is found at Ahmadnagar. Both attest the former greatness of the Sayyids of Piháni, by whom they were erected.

Haidarábád.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 19 miles north of Unáo town. Lat. 26° 55′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. Founded about 180 years ago by Haidar Khán, who named it after himself. Population (1881), Hindus, 3061; Muhammadans, 758; total, 3819. Two weekly markets; small annual trading fair. Average sales, about £2400. Village school and post-office.

Haidargarh.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bara Banki and Rám Sanehi *tahsíls*, on the east by Musáfirkhána *tahsíl* of Sultánpur, on the south by Mahárájganj *tahsíl* of Rái Bareli, and on the west by Mohanlálganj *tahsíl* of Lucknow; lying between 26° 31′ 30″ and 26° 51′ N. lat., and between 81° 12′ and 81° 39′ E. long. Area, 297 square miles, of which 181 are cultivated. Population (1881) 170,381, namely, Hindus, 154,669, and Muhammadans, 18,712. The Sub-division contains one criminal court, with two police circles (*thánás*), and a police force of 40 men.

Haidargarh.—*Parganá* of Haidargarh *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Siddhaur *parganá*, on the east by Subehá *parganá*, on the south by Bachhráwán *parganá* of Rái Bareli, and on the west by Lucknow. Originally occupied by the Bhars, who were dispossessed by Sayyid Míran, and afterwards extirpated by Sultán Ibráhím of Jaunpur. It is now chiefly in the possession of the Amethia clan of Rájputs. Area, 103 square miles, of which 59 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £9051, or an average of 3s. 1d. per acre. Autumn crops—rice of excellent quality, cotton, hemp, millet, and pulses; spring crops—wheat, barley, gram, linseed, peas, sugar, tobacco, and poppy. Of the 118 villages of which the *parganá* is composed, 61½ are *tálukdárí*, 29½ *zamíndárí*, 26 *pattidárí*, and 1 *bhayachára*. Population (1881) 58,522, namely, 28,679 males and 29,843 females. Grain is exported to Lucknow, Sultánpur, Dariábád, and Cawnpur;

principal imports, cotton and salt. Saltpetre is manufactured in four villages to the extent of 35,000 *maunds*, or 1277 tons, annually. Seven market villages.

Haidargarh.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; 25 miles east of the head-quarters station. Founded by Amír-ud-daulá Haídar Beg Khán, Prime Minister of Nawáb Asif-ud-daulá. It is now the seat of the *tahsíl* revenue courts, but otherwise of little importance. Population (1881) 2128, namely, Hindus 1441, and Muhammadans 687.

Haidargarh.—Pass in South Kanara District, Madras Presidency. —*See* HASSANGADI.

Hailákándi.—Sub-division in the south of Cachar District, Assam. Area, 344 square miles. Population (1881) 65,671, namely, Hindus, 40,495; Muhammadans, 34,281; and 'others,' 1141.

Hailákándi.—Village in the south of Cachar District, Assam, on the right or east bank of the Dháleswari river. Head-quarters of the Sub-division of the same name, and also a *thána* or police station. It gives its name to a fertile valley, which is entirely laid under water by the floods of every rainy season.

Haing-gyí (or *Negrais*).—An island in the Bassein or Nga-won river, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 94° 20′ E. It is situated near the western bank, 3½ miles distant from Pagoda Point, and is rendered conspicuous by a hill at its northern end, which slopes away towards the centre. A narrow belt of level ground skirts the coast. The channel between Negrais and the Bassein river is 1 mile broad on the south and 4½ miles broad on the north, opposite the abandoned station of Dalhousie. Captain Taylor (*Sailing Directions*, p. 496) warns shipmasters that no vessel drawing over 14 feet should attempt to pass between the island and the mainland towards Port Dalhousie. For the history of Negrais Island, see BASSEIN DISTRICT.

Hajamro (or *Sian*).—River of Sind, Bombay Presidency; one of the central deltaic channels of the Indus; debouches into the sea south-east of Karáchi (Kurrachee), in latitude 24° 6′ N., and longitude 67° 22′ E. In 1845, the Hajamro was so small as to be only suited for the passage of small boats during flood; in 1875 it had taken the place of the Khedawári channel, and become the principal outlet of the Indus to the sea. In shape the Hajamro is somewhat like a funnel, the wide part to the sea. At the eastern entrance is a beacon 95 feet high, visible 25 miles. Two pilot-boats wait inside the bar to point out to entering vessels the dangers of the navigation.

Hájíganj.—Town and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*), in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Dákátiá river. Lat. 23° 15′ N., long. 90° 53′ 30″ E. An important seat of river traffic. Betel-nut is extensively cultivated, and a considerable trade in the article carried on with Dacca, Náráinganj, and Calcutta.

Hájípur.—Sub-division of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Area, 771 square miles, with 1707 villages and 101,713 occupied houses; lying between 25° 29′ and 26° 1′ N. lat., and between 85° 6′ 45″ and 85° 41′ E. long. Population (1881) 724,531, namely, Hindus, 657,421; Muhammadans, 30,126; and Christians, 34. Males numbered 344,281, and females 380,250. Proportion of males in total population, 47·7 per cent.; average density of population, 940 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·21; persons per village, 422; houses per square mile, 140; persons per house, 7·12. The Sub-division, which was formed in 1865, comprises the 3 *thánás* or police circles of Hájípur, Lálganj, and Mahwá. It contained in 1883 one civil and two criminal courts, with a regular police force of 146 officers and men, and a village watch or rural police numbering 1304.

Hájípur.—Municipal town, and head-quarters of Hájípur Sub-division, and a police circle (*thánd*), Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the right or east bank of the Little Gandak, a short distance above its confluence with the Ganges opposite Patná. Lat. 25° 40′ 50″ N., long. 85° 14′ 24″ E. Said to have been founded by one Hájí Ilyás, about 500 years ago, the supposed ramparts of whose fort, enclosing an area of 360 *bighás*, are still visible. The old town is reported to have reached as far as Mohnár *thánd*, 20 miles to the east, and to a village called Gadái-sarái on the north. Hájípur figures conspicuously in the history of the struggles between Akbar and his rebellious Afghán governors of Bengal, being twice besieged and captured by the imperial troops, in 1572 and again in 1574. Its command of water traffic in three directions makes the town a place of considerable commercial importance. Population (1872) 22,306; (1881) 25,078, namely, males 11,564, and females 13,514. Hindus numbered 20,895; Muhammadans, 4169; and 'others,' 14. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £740, of which £614 was derived from taxation; expenditure, £679; incidence of taxation, 4⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits. Within the area of the old fort is a small stone mosque, very plain, but of peculiar architecture, attributed to Hájí Ilyás. Its top consists of three rounded domes, the centre one being the largest. They are built of horizontally-placed rows of stones, each row being a circle, and each successive circle being more contracted than the one immediately below it, until the key-stone is reached, which is also circular. Two other mosques and a small Hindu temple are in the town or its immediate vicinity. A Buddhist temple, surrounded by a *sarái* or rest-house, was built for the accommodation of the late Sir Jang Bahádur, on the occasion of his visits from Nepál. Besides the ordinary courts, the town contains a school, police station, post-office, charitable dispensary, and distillery.

Hájo.—Village in the north of Kámrúp District, Assam, near the

left or east bank of the Baraliyá river, and about 6 miles north of the Brahmaputra. In the immediate neighbourhood is the celebrated Mahámuni temple, situated on the summit of a low hill. The place is annually visited by thousands of pilgrims from all parts of India, not only Hindus, but also Buddhists from beyond the Himálayas, who venerate it as a spot rendered sacred by the presence of the founder of their faith.

Hála.—Sub-division or Deputy Collectorate of HAIDARABAD (HYDERABAD) DISTRICT, Sind, Bombay Presidency, situated between 25° 8′ and 26° 15′ N. latitude, and between 68° 16′ 30″ and 69° 17′ E. longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Nausháhro Sub-division; on the south by Haidarábád *táluk;* on the east by the Thar and Párkar Political Superintendency; and on the west by the Indus. Area, 2522 square miles; population (1872) 216,139; (1881) 224,847. The Sub-division is divided into 4 *táluks*, namely, Hála, Alahyár-jo-Tando, Sháhdádpur, and Mírpur Khás. It contains 279 villages and 6 towns, 14 of which have a population of over 800. Occupied houses, 41,724. In general aspect, the tract is an unbroken plain, sandy and unprofitable on the eastern side; but intersected by canals and fringed with forest on the west. These canals, 95 in number, are, with the exception of one, Government property; they have an aggregate length of 938 miles, and yield an annual income of £32,945. Temperature, 74° to 103° F.; average annual rainfall, about 6 inches. The chief tree is the *babúl*, or Asiatic acacia. The forest areas aggregate 24,764 acres, yielding in 1873–74 a revenue of £3066. They were all planted between 1790 and 1830 by the Mírs of Sind. The fisheries, six in number, yielded in 1880-81 a revenue of £162.

The population of the Sub-division (224,847) was divided in the Census of 1881 as follows:—Muhammadans, 173,285; Hindus, 31,490; Sikhs, 9151; aborigines, 10,764; 144 Jains; 2 Christians; 9 Jews, and 2 'others.' In character, habits, dress, etc., the inhabitants of Hála are not distinguished by any peculiarities from those of the rest of the District. As elsewhere in Sind, the prevalent crimes are cattle-stealing, theft, and housebreaking. The criminal returns for 1881 show a total of 1772 offences, or 1 in 127 of the population. The civil returns for the same year give a total of 1296 suits; value in dispute, £14,578. The chief revenue and magisterial charge is vested in a Deputy Collector and Magistrate, who has under him a *mukhtiárkár* for each of the 4 *táluks*, and a *tapádár* for each of the 24 *tapás*. The only civil court in the Sub-division is that at the town of Hála, presided over by a native subordinate judge, who goes on circuit annually to Adam-jo-Tando and Alahyár-jo-Tando. The Hála police number 164 officers and men, or 1 constable to 1317 of the population. Forty-three of the whole are mounted. The only jails are the 4 lock-ups at the *mukhtiárkár* stations.

The revenue of the Sub-division for 1880–81 was £46,216, being £43,300 imperial and £2196 local, derived from the following sources:—Imperial—Land-tax, £35,670; *abkári*, £2392; stamps, £4000; salt, £2; registration, £214; postal and miscellaneous, £1022: Local—Cesses on land, £2156; percentage on alienated lands, £539; ferry funds, £59; fisheries, £162. A topographical survey for the purposes of assessment was completed in 1865. The rates of the Settlement concluded in 1871–72 for ten years vary from 1s. for inferior soils to 8s. for high-class irrigated lands. Tenants, as a rule, pay the *zamíndár* in kind, but the Government dues are now received in money. The prevailing tenure is the ordinary *zamíndári* of HAIDARABAD DISTRICT, but *jágírs* are very numerous, 168 grantees holding between them 163,078 acres. The total number of *seri* grants is 35, aggregating 490 acres. The number of *máfidárs* is 37.

There are 6 municipalities within the Sub-division—Alahyár-jo-Tando, Adam-jo-Tando, Hála, Matárí, Nasarpur, and Sháhdádpur—with an aggregate income of £2331 in 1882–83. There are four dispensaries—at Hála, Alahyár-jo-Tando, Adam-jo-Tando, and Mírpur—total admissions (during 1881–82), 11,553; average daily attendance, 40. There are in all 15 Government schools, with an attendance of 849 pupils; the indigenous schools number 11, with 120 pupils.

The trade of the Sub-division is confined almost wholly to agricultural produce. Exports, £139,798; imports, £85,163. Transit trade, about £190,000. Lacquered ware, glazed pottery (for which prizes were gained by the Hála workmen at the Karáchi Exhibition of 1869), and striped cloths called *súsis* and *khesis* are the chief manufactures. There are in all 22 fairs, the chief one (a Hindu) being attended annually by 35,000 persons; the remainder are Muhammadan fairs, with an average attendance of 3000. Roads aggregate nearly 600 miles in length; none are metalled, but many are partially bridged.

The chief antiquities are the ruins of BRAHMANABAD and Khudábád. The latter, 2 miles from Hála (New), was once the favourite residence of the Tálpur chiefs, and is said to have rivalled Haidarábád in size and population. The ancient tombs at Lál-Udero, Kámáro, and Myo Vahio are all noteworthy.

Hála.—*Táluk* of the Hála Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 78,149, of which 4153 are 'floating'; area, 531 square miles, containing 3 towns and 70 villages. The population occupies 15,339 houses. Males number 42,265, females 35,884; classified according to religion, there were 9855 Hindus, 63,086 Muhammadans, 3297 Sikhs, 1761 aborigines, 144 Jains, and 6 Jews. Revenue for 1883–84, £8819. The area assessed to land revenue in 1882–83 was 110,964 acres; area under actual cultivation, 42,500 acres.

The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 39 men.

Hála, New.—Town in the Hála Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; formerly known as Murtizábád. Latitude 25° 48′ 30″ N., longitude 68° 27′ 30″ E.; population (1881) 3967. Municipal income (1880–81), £363; expenditure, £342; rate of taxation, 1s. 9¾d. per head. The local trade consists chiefly of grain, piece-goods, *ghí*, cotton, and sugar, valued approximately at £3900. The transit trade (in the same articles) is valued at about £700. Hála has long been famous for its glazed pottery and tiles, made from a fine clay obtained from the Indus, mixed with powdered flints. The ornamentation is brilliant and tasteful. The *súsis* or trouser-cloths, for which Hála is also celebrated, are manufactured to the value of £750 yearly. Hála (New) was built about 1800 in consequence of HALA (Old), 2 miles distant, being threatened with encroachment by the Indus. Among the antiquities round which the new town has grown up are the tomb and mosque of a Pír or Muhammadan saint, who died in the 16th century, and in whose honour a fair, largely attended by Muhammadans from all parts of the Province, is held twice a year. The British Government contributed, in 1876, £100 to the repair of this tomb. Hála is situated on the Alíganj Canal, and is immediately connected with the Trunk Road at two points. It contains a subordinate judge's and *mukhtiárkár's* courts, dispensary, and travellers' bungalow, also a first-class subordinate jail. The number of patients relieved in the dispensary in 1883 was 3761, namely, 13 in-door and 3748 out-door.

Hála, Old.—Town in the Hála Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population under 2000 in 1881: mainly agriculturists. It is said to have been founded about 1422, but was partially abandoned in 1800 owing to threatened encroachments of the Indus; and HALA (New) was built in its stead, 2 miles off. Government vernacular school.

Háláni.—Town in the Nausháhro Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population under 2000 in 1881: mainly agriculturists; the Muhammadans are chiefly Sahatas, and the Hindus are Lohános and Punjabis. Export trade in grain; annual value, £700. Near Háláni the Talpur forces defeated, in 1781, the last of the Kalhora dynasty, and the tombs of the chiefs who fell in the battle mark the spot. The town lies on the high road, and is about 200 years old.

Halaria.—Petty State of South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consists of 4 villages, with 3 separate tribute-payers. Population, 895 in 1872, and 1066 in 1881. Lies on the Shatranji river, 16 miles south-east of Kunkáwar railway station. The revenue is estimated at

£1500; tribute of £10 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £7, 14s. to Junágarh.

Haldá.—River of Chittagong District, Bengal; one of the chief tributaries of the Karnaphulí. Navigable by native boats for a distance of 24 miles throughout the year, and for 35 miles in the rainy season. One of the principal fishing rivers of the District.

Haldí.—River of Southern Bengal, rising in lat. 22° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 13′ 15″ E., near the western boundary of Midnapur District. The river is formed by the junction of the Kasái (Cossye) and Tengrakhálí, whence it flows south-south-east till it falls into the Húglí, in lat. 22° 0′ 30″ N., long. 88° 6′ 15″ E., near Nandígáon, in the Tamlúk Subdivision, a few miles south of the confluence of the Rúpnáráyan and Húglí, and opposite Mud Point in Ságar island. The Haldí is a large river at its mouth, and is navigable throughout the year up to Tengrakhálí, but with difficulty, owing to numerous shoals and sandbanks. The Haldí is connected with the Rúpnáráyan on the north, and with the Rasúlpur river on the south, by a tidal navigable canal. — *See* RUPNARAYAN and RASALPUR CANAL.

Halebid ('*Old Ruins*').—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State. Latitude 13° 12′ 20″ N., longitude 76° 2′ E. Population under 2000. The site of the ancient city of Dorásamudra or Dvárávatipura, the capital of the Hoysala Ballála dynasty. It was apparently rebuilt in the 13th century by king Vira Sameswara, described in certain inscriptions as the founder. To him is assigned the erection of the two magnificent temples in honour of Siva, which rank among the masterpieces of Hindu art. The larger of these, the Hoysaleswara temple, though never completed, has elicited from Mr. Fergusson the opinion that 'taken altogether, it is perhaps the building on which the advocate of Hindu architecture would desire to take his stand.' Its dimensions are roughly 200 feet square, and 25 feet high above the terrace on which it stands. The material is an indurated potstone of volcanic origin, found in the neighbourhood, which takes a polish like marble. The ornamentation consists of a series of friezes one above another, each about 700 feet long, and carved with the most exquisite elaboration. One frieze alone represents a procession of not less than 2000 elephants. The smaller or Kaitabheswara temple has unfortunately been entirely split to pieces in recent years by the growth of trees and their roots through the joins of the stones. Some of the most perfect sculptures have been removed to the Museum at Bangalore. There are also ruins of Jain *bastís* and of other buildings in the neighbourhood. The city of Dorásamúdra was taken and sacked by the Muhammadans in 1310, and the capital of the Ballálas transferred to Tondanúr.

Háleri.—Village in the territory of Coorg; has an historical interest as the first settlement of the family of Lingáyats from Ikkeri in

Mysore, who established themselves as Rájás of Coorg in the 17th century. The old palace, which was built on the usual plan of Coorg houses, though on a larger scale, and with breastworks and other defences, became a complete ruin, and all the material composing it was sold in 1881. Latitude 12° 27′ N., longitude 75° 52′ E.

Halhaliá.—River of Bengal, formerly a considerable stream rising in Maimansingh District, which has now almost disappeared, or been absorbed by the Brahmaputra or Jamuná. Branches of it, however, remain on both sides of the Jamuná; that on the west bank being much the larger of the two, and flowing in a very tortuous course through Bográ District, for about 30 miles, until it joins the Karátoyá at Khánpur. The lower part of the Halhaliá is navigable for large boats. Chief markets on the banks—Kaliání, Páchibárí, Dhunot, Gosáinbárí, and Chandanbásiá. The Halhaliá is locally confounded with another river, the Manás, which has almost disappeared in consequence of the same causes to which the Halhaliá itself owes its diminished size.

Haliyál (*Supa*).—Sub-division of North Kanara District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 980 square miles; contains 1 town and 215 villages. Population (1881) 61,154, namely, 33,326 males and 27,828 females. Hindus number 53,802; Muhammadans, 3864; 'others, 3488. Since 1872, the population has increased by 7368. The region consists of waving upland, seamed by the river Kálinadí and its tributaries. The north and east form an open plain. Staple crops, rice and sugar-cane. Rainfall, 47·8 inches. The forests of teak, blackwood, and bamboo cover an area of 251 square miles. More than a million bamboos (for which a fee of from 6s. to 2s. a hundred is paid) were exported in 1882. The forests are everywhere open to carts. The incidence of land revenue per cultivated acre varies from 16s. to 1s. Total land revenue, £10,669.

Haliyál.—Town in Haliyál Sub-division of North Kanara District, Bombay Presidency. It lies 21 miles to the south-west of Dhárwár, in latitude 15° 19′ 50″ N., and longitude 74° 48′ E. Population (1881) 5527; municipal revenue (1881–82), £489; rate of taxation, 1s. 9d. per head. Colonel Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, visited Haliyál, and speaks highly in his despatches of its importance as a frontier post. The Haliyál timber depôt supplies the best bamboo, teak, and blackwood of the Kanara jungles. The new railway under construction from Dhárwár to Marmagao runs about 9 miles to the north of Haliyál. Post-office, 2 schools, and dispensary. Number of patients treated in the dispensary in 1883—in-door, 86; out-door, 4754.

Hallár (*Hálláwár*).—A *Prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; lying between 21° 44′ and 22° 55′ N. latitude, and 69° 8′ and 71° 2′ E. longitude. Takes its name from the Jarejá Hálla

Rájputs, and includes, among others, the chiefships of NAWANAGAR, RAJKOT, MORVI, DHORAJI, GONDAL, DHROL, and KOTRA-SANGANI. Limits of tract not strictly defined, but includes an area of 7060 square miles. Population (1881) 150,444, namely, 76,115 males and 74,329 females. Hindus numbered 93,644; Muhammadans, 44,999; Jains, 11,797; Pársís, 193; Christians, 181; and 'others,' 130. The division lies in the west of Káthiáwár, and embraces the level tract between the Gulf of Cutch, the district of Okhámandal (Baroda territory), the Barda Hills, and the Arabian Sea. Locally, the tract is known as the Barári.

Hálon.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in 22° 6′ N. latitude and 81° 5′ E. longitude, about 8 miles south of the Chilpíghát, or pass, in the Máikal range; flows northwards for about 60 miles through Bálághát and Mándla Districts, Central Provinces; and falls into the Burhner in latitude 22° 40′ N., and longitude 80° 47′ E. Average elevation of its valley, 2000 feet.

Halwad.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; 85 miles south-west of Ahmadábád. Lat. 23° 1′ N., long. 71° 14′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5967, namely, 4749 Hindus, 1075 Muhammadans, and 143 Jains. Once the capital of the Dhrángadra State. The town is said to resemble a plough in shape. Fine palace, built on Lake Sámatsar.

their revenue from the same estates. Moreover, the Bundela princes were opposed by the Maráthá chieftains; and Alí Bahádur, an illegitimate descendant of the Peshwá who had made himself Nawáb of

Hamírgarh.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rájputána. Situated on the Nímach and Nasírábád road, 61 miles from the former and 83 from the latter. A second-class noble of the State resides here. The town is commanded by a small hill fort.

Hamírpur.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 5′ and 26° 10′ N. lat., and between 79° 22′ 45″ and 80° 25′ 15″ E. long. Hamírpur forms the south-western District of the Allahábád Division. It is bounded on the north by the Jumna (Jamuná); on the north-west by the Native State of Báoni and the Betwá river; on the west by the Dhasán river; on the south by the Alípura, Chhatarpur, and Charkhári States; and on the east by Bánda District. It encloses the Native States of Saríla, Jigni, and Bíhat, besides portions of Charkhári and Garauli. Area, 2288·5 square miles. Population (1881) 507,337. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of HAMIRPUR; but RATH has the largest population in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Hamírpur forms part of the great plain of Bundelkhand, which stretches between the banks of the Jumna (Jamuná) and the central Vindhyan plateau. The District is in shape an irregular parallelogram, with a general slope northward from the low hills on the

southern boundary toward the valleys of the Jumna and Betwá, which limit it on the north and west. The plains of the District are level, dry, and cultivable. They consist for the most part of black soil (*mar*), known as cotton soil, and a blackish soil (*kabar*), both of which dry up and form large holes and fissures during the hot season. The hilly southern region is composed of scattered outlying spurs from the main line of the Vindhyan range. Their general elevation does not exceed 300 feet above the Jumna valley, or a total of about 800 feet above the level of the sea, and their sides are generally bare of trees or jungle. They are rendered picturesque, however, by their rugged outline and artificial lakes, for which, particularly those of Máhoba, the District is celebrated. These magnificent reservoirs were constructed by the Chandel Rájás, about 800 years ago, for purposes of irrigation and as sheets of ornamental water. They are hemmed round on two or three sides by rocky hills, while the outlets are stopped by dams of massive masonry, whose antiquity conceals all traces of their artificial origin. Many of them enclose craggy islets or peninsulas, crowned by the ruins of granite temples, exquisitely carved and decorated. The largest lake, Bíjanagar, has a circumference of about 5 miles. The waters of several of these lakes are utilized for irrigation purposes by means of small canals, fourteen in number, varying from half a mile to over six miles

waving upland, seamed by the river Kálinadí and its tributaries. The north and east form an open plain. Staple crops, rice and sugar-cane. Rainfall, 47·8 inches. The forests of teak, blackwood, and bamboo

isolated heights, in an arid and treeless level towards the broken banks of the rivers. Of these, the principal are the Betwá and its tributary the Dhasán, both of which are unnavigable. On the triangle formed by their junction with the stream of the Jumna, stands the town of Hamírpur, which is thus isolated from the remainder of the District by the Betwá river and the Native State of Báoni. The Hamírpur bank of the Jumna is high; its opposite shore is low and shelving. There is little waste land, except in the ravines by the river-sides and hills. The deep black soil of Bundelkhand, known as *már*, retains the moisture under a dried and rifted surface, and renders the District fertile; but unhappily the *káns* grass, the scourge of the Bundelkhand agriculturist, periodically overruns the country, except where cultivation is carefully conducted. There are no large jungles, though those of Bílki, in *parganá* Máhoba, and Pasinábád, in *parganá* Jaitpur, give cover to a considerable quantity of game. The wild animals found consist of tigers, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackals, antelopes, and pigs.

History.—The early annals of Bundelkhand, of which Province Hamírpur forms a portion, have been briefly sketched in the article on BANDA. During the Chandel supremacy, from the 9th to the 14th century, MAHOBA, in the south of the District, was the capital of that

dynasty. The Chandels adorned the town and its neighbourhood with many splendid edifices, remains of which still exist in great numbers; besides constructing the noble artificial lakes already described. The last of their Rájás, Parmál, was defeated in 1183 by Prithwiráj, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi; after which disaster the Chandel princes abandoned Máhoba and fixed their capital at the hill fort of KALINJAR, in Bánda District. About twelve years later, Máhoba was conquered by Kutab-ud-dín, the general of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, and with occasional interruptions, remained in the hands of the Musalmáns for 500 years.

In 1680, the District came into the possession of Chhatar Sál, the great national hero of the Bundelas, and was the theatre of many battles during his long struggle with the imperial forces. On his death, about 1734, he assigned to his ally, the Peshwá of the Maráthás, one-third of his territories; and Máhoba formed a portion of the region so granted. The larger part of the present District of Hamírpur fell to his son Jagat-ráj. During the next seventy years, the District continued under the government of his descendants, who, however, carried on among themselves that intestine warfare which was universal in Bundelkhand throughout the latter half of the 18th century. Rival Rájás had forts in every village, and one after the other collected their revenue from the same estates. Moreover, the Bundela princes were opposed by the Maráthá chieftains; and Alí Bahádur, an illegitimate descendant of the Peshwá who had made himself Nawáb of Bánda, succeeded in 1790 in annexing a portion of the District. He was defeated by the British, and died in 1802. The British District of Bundelkhand was formed in the succeeding year (1803), a part being granted to our ally, Rájá Himmat Bahádur, as the price of his allegiance. The town of Máhoba itself, with the surrounding country, remained in the hands of the Pandits of JALAUN, until, on the death of their last representative in 1840, it lapsed to the British. The Subdivision known as Jáitpur was ruled by the descendants of Chhatar Sál until 1842, when the last Rájá, believing that our reverses at Kábul would prove fatal to British rule, revolted, and having been easily captured, was removed to Cawnpur, receiving from us a pension of £200 a month. Jáitpur was handed over to another claimant, who mortgaged it to the Government, and died without issue in 1849. His territories lapsed to Government, and have since formed a part of Hamírpur District.

When the British first occupied Hamírpur in 1803, they found it in the same wretched condition as the remainder of Bundelkhand. The land had been impoverished by the long war of independence carried on under Chhatar Sál; overrun and ravaged by predatory leaders during the disastrous period of Maráthá aggression; and devas-

tated by robber chiefs, who levied revenue on their own account, granting receipts for the payment, which the authorized collectors were obliged to accept. As early as 1819, the attention of Government was called to the fact that many estates were being relinquished by the *zamíndárs*, through their inability to meet the demands for the land revenue. In 1842, land in Hamírpur District was reported to be utterly valueless, and many instances were adduced in which purchasers of estates had been completely ruined through over-assessment. Several estates were held by Government for arrears of revenue, because no purchasers could be found for them. A new land settlement was effected in 1842 on a greatly reduced assessment. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, Hamírpur exhibited the same return to anarchy which characterized the whole of Bundelkhand. On the 13th of June 1857, the 56th Native Infantry broke into mutiny, and the massacre of Europeans began. Only one Christian escaped with life. The surrounding native chiefs set up rival claims to portions of the British territory, and plundered all the principal towns. The Charkhári Rájá alone maintained a wavering allegiance, which grew firmer as the forces of General Whitlock approached Máhoba. That town was reached in September 1858, and the fort of Srínagar was destroyed. After a short period of desultory guerilla warfare in the hilly regions of Bundelkhand, the rebels were effectually quelled, and the work of re-organization began. Since the Mutiny, the condition of Hamírpur seems to have improved; but it has not yet recovered from the long anarchy of the Maráthá rule, and the excessive taxation of the early British period. The poor and neglected aspect of the homesteads, the careless and apathetic appearance of the people, and the wide expanse of shadeless plain, all bear witness to the prolonged disorganization and mistaken economy of former days.

People.—Hamírpur is one of the Districts of the North-Western Provinces in which the population appears to have reached its limits, and even to be on the decline. The enumerations of 1842 and 1853 did not include the whole of the present District, which has since been enlarged by the addition of Máhoba and Jaitpur; and they are consequently of little use for purposes of comparison. The Census of 1865 returned the population at 520,941 persons, on an area corresponding to that of the present District; and that of 1872 returned the population at 529,137, showing an increase of 8196, or 1·57 per cent. In 1881, the Census returned the population at 507,337, showing a decrease of 21,800, or 4·1 per cent., in the nine years since 1872. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly stated as follows:—Area of District, 2288·5 square miles; number of towns and villages, 755; houses, 83,544. Total population, 507,337, namely, males 259,778, and females 247,559; proportion of males, 51·2 per

cent. The preponderance of males is due partly to the unwillingness of the Rájputs to state the number of their women, and partly to the former prevalence of female infanticide, which has not yet been quite stamped out. Average density of population, 221·6 per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, ·32; persons per town or village, 672; houses per square mile, 36·5; persons per house, 6·07.

As regards religious divisions, the Hindus numbered 474,092, or 93·4 per cent.; and the Musalmáns, 33,228, or 6·6 per cent. Christians numbered 17. Of the higher class Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 53,666; Rájputs, 37,810; and Baniyás, 16,232. The Bráhmans are mainly engaged in agriculture, and have consequently lost much of the respect due to their caste. The Rájputs have been very minutely reckoned in the Census, in order to discover which classes amongst them are addicted to infanticide. The Census of 1881 returned the males among the Rájputs at 21,135, and the females at 16,675; proportion of males, 55·9 per cent. The Rájputs amount to 62 clans; three of which were found to be specially guilty of the practice of female infanticide, namely, the Parihárs, Chauháns, and Bais. The Chandels and Bundelas, the old dominant classes, mostly still cling to the neighbourhood of Máhoba, the seat of their former supremacy. The Bais are far the most numerous of the Rájput classes in the District. Among the trading classes the only division of any peculiarity is that of the Márwárís. They act as bankers and money-lenders, but they have also acquired much landed property. Káyasths, or the writer caste, number 7940. Among the Súdras or low castes, the most numerous are the Lodhís (57,300), Chámárs (69,079), Ahírs (28,448), Kachhís (29,808), and the Korís (26,228). The Musalmáns are the descendants of converted Hindus, who were originally Thákurs, and their habits are still much the same as those of their fellow Rájputs. Other Hindu Súdra castes include—Bhangís (13,791), Kahárs (13,046), Kumbhárs (12,610), Nais (11,328), Telís (10,943), and Gadárias (9976). There are only 2 Native Christians in the District, and no settlement has been effected by the Bráhma Samáj. The Musalmáns are making no converts. There are very few wealthy inhabitants, the landholders being often scarcely at all better off than their labourers, and living in much the same style.

The District contains 8 towns with a population of more than 5000 persons—namely, RATH, 14,479; HAMIRPUR, 7155; KHARELA, 7633; MAHOBA, 7577; MAUDHA, 6116; KULPAHAR, 6066; SUMERPUR, 5222; and JAITPUR, 5440. The urban population is on the decrease. Of the 755 towns and villages comprising the District in 1881, 232 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 210 from two to five hundred, 168 from five hundred to a thousand, 110 from one to two thousand, 16 from two to three thousand, 11 from three to five thousand, 7 from five to ten

thousand, and 1 upwards of ten thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main groups:—Class (1) Professional, including Government servants, civil and military, and the learned professions, 5374; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 451; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 1876; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 116,071; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 37,846; (6) indefinite and unproductive (comprising 9548 general labourers, and 88,612 male children and persons of unspecified occupation), 98,160. The language in common use is Bundelkhandí, which is a dialect of Hindí.

Agriculture.—The staple produce of the District is grain of various sorts, the most important being gram. Pulses, wheat, and millet are also largely cultivated. The autumn crops are heavier than the spring, cotton being the most valuable amongst them. Its cultivation is on the increase. Out of a total area in 1881–82, of 1,464,609 acres, 232,491 acres were returned as barren, and 1,232,118 as cultivable, of which latter area 852,778 acres were actually under cultivation. Manure is little used, except for garden land. Irrigation is practised on only 13,838 acres, chiefly in the south, where water can be obtained from the artificial lakes constructed by the Chandel princes. There are fourteen small canals connected with these lakes, and belonging to Government; but they supply water to an area of only 1319 acres. The remainder of the irrigated land is watered by hand labour. The out-turn of *bájra*, a kind of millet much grown in the District, is about £1, 1s. 8d. per acre; that of *til*, an oil-seed, about £1, 4s. per acre. In Hamírpur, as elsewhere in Bundelkhand, the cultivators have suffered much from the spread of the *káns* grass, a noxious weed, which overruns the fields and is found to be almost ineradicable wherever it has once obtained a footing. It is usual to abandon the lands thus attacked, in the hope that the *káns* may use up the soil, and so finally kill itself out, which it is said to do in from twelve to fifteen years.

The peasantry are hopelessly in debt, and careless as to comfort or appearances. Most of the landowners have no capital, and the few wealthy *zamíndárs* are foolishly penurious in all matters of improvement. The land is for the most part cultivated by tenants-at-will. The total male agricultural population of Hamírpur in 1881, numbered 115,457, cultivating an average of 7·25 acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil, amounted to 336,029, or 66·23 per cent. of the total District population. Of the total area of 2288·5 square miles, 2259 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 1290 square miles are under cultivation, 594 square miles are cultivable, and the remainder is uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on

land, £126,805, or 3s. 0¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental actually paid by cultivators, including cesses, £157,543, or 3s. 9⅛d. per cultivated acre. Rents vary much with the nature of the soil; the best lands are returned at from 12s. to £1, 4s. per acre; the poorest at from 2s. to 4s. Few farms extend to 100 acres; from 20 to 25 acres form a fair-sized holding. The rates of wages are as follow:—Smiths, 4½d. to 6d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 3¾d. to 4½d.; labourers in towns, 3d.—in villages, 2¼d. Wages have risen from 15 to 100 per cent. during the last twenty years. The average prices of food-grains for the ten years 1861–71 are as follow:—Gram, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 4s. 5¾d. per cwt.; wheat, 6s. 2¼d. per cwt.; barley, 4s. 5¾d. per cwt. On the whole, prices have been rising of late years, although in 1882–83, owing to an exceptionally favourable season, they ranged somewhat below the averages given above. Gram was quoted at 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *bajrá*, 4s. per cwt.; wheat, 7s. per cwt.; and *joár*, 4s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Hamírpur is little subject to blight or flood; but droughts and their concomitant, famine, are unhappily common. The last great famine was that of 1837, which produced so deep an effect upon the native mind that the peasantry still employ it as an era by which to calculate their ages. The scarcity of 1868–69 was severely felt in Hamírpur, though most of the deaths which it induced were due to disease rather than to actual starvation. It pressed more heavily on the upland villages than on the country near the banks of the Jumna. Symptoms of distress first appeared early in the year 1869, and the scarcity was not allayed till November. Relief measures were adopted in March, partly by gratuitous distribution, chiefly by means of local works. During the whole period of distress, a daily average of 546 persons received aid, and 2736 persons were employed on famine works. Gram, the staple food of the people, rose from its average of 4s. 8d. per cwt. to a maximum of 10s. 8d. per cwt. in September. Famine rates may be considered to be reached when gram sells at 8s. 10d. per cwt., and Government relief then becomes necessary. This test, however, cannot altogether be relied on, as the cultivators cease to employ labour on the approach of scarcity, and prices become merely nominal, the poorer classes having no money to purchase food. In portions of the District, a regular scale of remission of revenue and rent, in famines of varying intensities, has been drawn up, and neither Government nor the *zamíndárs* are permitted to recover more than the stipulated proportion. The means of communication are now probably sufficient to avert the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of Hamírpur District is chiefly carried on by means of its great river highway—the Jumna. The cotton and grain, which form the staple exports, are carried down-

ward; while rice, sugar, tobacco, and Manchester goods constitute the chief imports upward. The navigation between Allahábád and Agra is rendered dangerous by shoals, rocks, and sunken trees. Efforts have been made to improve this part of the river, but with little success. About one-fourth of the grain raised in the District is exported, and the remainder used for home consumption. The manufactures consist of coarse cotton cloth and soapstone ornaments. No railway passes through the District, and the nearest station is Mauhár, on the East Indian main line, about 30 miles from the town of Hamírpur. There is only one metalled road, between Hamírpur and Naugáon, 70 miles in length, with a branch from Bánda meeting it at Kabrai; and there are four other fair-weather roads. There is no printing-press in the District.

Administration.—The first land settlement, in 1805, included only a small portion of the present District; and much of the revenue was necessarily remitted, owing to the depredations of freebooting chiefs. The second arrangement, two years later, was equally futile, from the same cause, and from the badness of the seasons. From 1809 till 1842, the assessments were several times increased, in face of the fact that the revenue could not be collected through the poverty of the *zamíndárs.* Large balances were constantly accruing. Unfortunately the area and fiscal divisions for these settlements varied so much that the statistics are not available for purposes of comparison. In 1842, the District had become so impoverished that a considerable decrease in the Government demand became imperatively necessary. The incidence of the land revenue was accordingly altered in that year from 3s. 10⅞d. per acre on the cultivated area, to 3s. 3⅛d. This settlement, which continued in force until 1872, is considered to have been a fair one, and succeeded in removing the pressure of former assessments. The total land revenue demand for 1870–71 amounted to £108,410, of which £108,332 was collected. In 1881, out of a total revenue of £116,448, £106,828 was derived from the land-tax. The number of estates in 1870–71 was registered at 1127, and the proprietors or coparceners at 28,086. Average land revenue paid by each estate, £96, 4s., and by each proprietor, £3, 18s. In 1882 there were 1450 estates on the rent-roll, assessed at an average of £73, 16s. 3d. each.

The District is administered by a Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, 2 Deputy Collectors, and 5 *tahsíldárs.* The District contained in 1881, 12 civil and revenue, and 12 magisterial courts. In the same year there were 26 police stations and 4 outposts, with a regular police force of 549 officers and men, including 133 municipal or town police; giving 1 policeman to every 4·17 square miles and to every 924 inhabitants. The cost of the police

was £6262, of which £5407 was paid by the State. The regular police were supplemented by 1953 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), or 1 to every 260 inhabitants, maintained by the villages and landholders. The District contains one jail, with an average daily number of 195 prisoners in 1881. Education makes but slow progress. In 1850 there were only 1078 persons under instruction in the District. In 1860 there were 104 schools, attended by 1414 pupils. By 1870 the number of schools had increased to 112, and the pupils to 3066. In 1881 the number of Government-inspected schools had fallen to 91, but the pupils had increased to 3557. This is exclusive of uninspected private schools, for which no details are available. The Census Report, however, returns 4286 boys and 21 girls as under instruction in 1881, besides 13,052 males and 67 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The greater part of the expense of education is borne by Government. The District is divided into 7 fiscal divisions (*parganás*). It contains no municipal towns at present, as Ráth, which for a short time was erected into a municipality, found its trade impaired by the octroi, and was accordingly relieved of its burdens.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Hamírpur District is dry and hot, owing to the absence of shade and the bareness of the soil, except in the neighbourhood of the Máhoba lakes, which cool and moisten the surrounding atmosphere. No accurate thermometrical observations have yet been taken. The rainfall was 17·2 inches in 1868–69 (the year of scarcity); 37·1 inches in 1869–70; 38·1 inches in 1870–71; and 27·31 inches in 1881, the average for the previous thirty years being returned at 31·78 inches. In 1882, which was a very unhealthy year, the total number of deaths recorded was 19,562, being at the rate of 38·49 to each thousand inhabitants. Of these, 9261, or 18·79 per thousand, were assigned to fever (which is endemic in the District), and 5216, or 10·58 per thousand, to bowel complaints. Hamírpur is comparatively free from small-pox, only 147 deaths, or ·30 per thousand, being due to this cause in 1882. Snake-bites and the

for, but the massive style of architecture and the huge stones that have been employed in their construction at once attract attention. Close to Kamalápur there is a fine stone aqueduct, and a building which has at some time or other been a bath. The use of the arch in the doorways, and the embellishments used in decorating the inner rooms, show that the design of this building was considerably modified by the Musalmáns, even if it was not constructed by them altogether. A little to the south of this is a very fine temple, of which the outer and inner walls are covered with spirited basso-relievos, representing hunting scenes and incidents in the *Ramáyana*. The four [illegible] are of a kind of black marble, handsomely carved.

Provinces; comprising the *parganás* of Hamírpur and Sumerpur,

and consisting of the narrow tongue of land enclosed by the confluence of the Betwá and the Jumna (Jamuná), together with a large strip of country on the eastern bank of the former river. Area, 375 square miles, of which 218½ are cultivated. Population (1872) 95,388; (1881) 75,398, namely, males 37,936, and females 37,462, showing a decrease of 19,990, or 20·9 per cent. in the nine years since 1872. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 71,215; Muhammadans, 4168; and 'others,' 15. Of the 124 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 79 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £17,945; total Government revenue, £20,103; rental paid by cultivators, £34,197; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 6d.

Hamírpur.—Administrative head-quarters of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 58′ N., long. 80° 11′ 50″ E. Situated on a tongue of land at the confluence of the Betwa and the Jumna (Jamuná), on the right bank of the latter river. Population (1872) 7007; (1881) 7155, namely, Hindus, 5546; Muhammadans, 1594; and Christians, 15. Area of town site, 197 acres. Founded, according to tradition, by Hamír Deo, a Karchuli Rájput, expelled from Alwar (Ulwur) by the Muhammadans. Capital of a District under Akbar. Possesses little importance apart from the presence of the civil station. Ruins of Hamír's fort and a few Musalmán tombs form the only relics of antiquity. Several Europeans were murdered here during the Mutiny. The public buildings consist of the court-house, treasury, police station, hospital, jail, dispensary, school, circuit-house, travellers' bungalow, two *saráis*, *bázár*. No manufactures; small trade in grain. The civil station is small, and deficient in houses and roads. The town lies on the route from Nowgong to Cawnpur; distant from Bánda 39 miles south, from Kálpi 28 south-east, from Agra 155 south-east, from Allahábád 110 north-west. Local taxation supports a municipal police of 12 men, at an annual cost of £81.

The number of estates in 1870–71 was registered at 1127, and the proprietors or coparceners at 28,086. Average land revenue paid by each estate, £96, 4s., and by each proprietor, £3, 18s. In 1882 there were 1450 estates on the rent-roll, assessed at an average of £73, 16s. 3d. each.

The District is administered by a Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, 2 Deputy Collectors, and 5 *tahsíldárs*. The District contained in 1881, 12 civil and revenue, and 12 magisterial courts. In the same year there were 26 police stations and 4 outposts, with a regular police force of 549 officers and men, including 133 municipal or town police; giving 1 policeman to every 4·17

Hampi.—Ruined city in Bellary District, Madras Presidency.

Latitude 15° 19′ 50″ N., longitude 76° 30′ 10″ E.; on the south bank of the Tungabhadra, 36 miles north-west of Bellary. The site of the ancient capital of the Vijayanagar kings. The ruins cover 9 square males, including Kamalápur on the south, and Anagúndi, the later seat of the dynasty.

Hampi was founded on the fall of the Ballála dynasty, about 1336 A.D., by two brothers, Bukka and Harihara, whose descendants flourished here till the battle of Tálikot, 1564, and afterwards at Anagúndi, Vellore, and Chandragiri for another century, until finally overwhelmed by the advancing powers of Bíjapur and Golconda. During the two and a quarter centuries that the Vijayanagar Rájás held the city of Hampi, they extended it and beautified it with palaces and temples.

Edwardo Barbessa describes the capital as 'of great extent, highly populous, and the seat of an active commerce in country diamonds, rubies from Pegu, silks of China and Alexandria and Cuinabar, camphor, musk, pepper, and sandal from Malabar.' The palaces of the king and his ministers, and the temples, are described as 'stately buildings of stone,' but the greater part of the population lived in 'hovels of straw and mud.' In the travels of Cæsar Frederic, the palace is thus spoken of: 'I have seen many kings' courts, yet have never seen anything to compare with the royal palace of Bijianuggur, which hath nine gates. First, when you go into that part where the king lodged, there are five great gates, kept by captains and soldiers. Within these are four lesser gates, which are kept by porters, and through these you enter into a very fair court at the end.' He describes the city as being 24 miles round, enclosing several hills. The ordinary dwellings were mean buildings with earthen walls, but the three palaces and the pagodas were all built of fine marble. Of the remains of all this greatness now visible, Mr. J. Kelsall, in his *Manual of the Bellary District* (Madras, 1872), says: 'Many of the buildings are now so destroyed that it is difficult to say what they were originally meant for, but the massive style of architecture and the huge stones that have been employed in their construction at once attract attention. Close to Kamalápur there is a fine stone aqueduct, and a building which has at some time or other been a bath. The use of the arch in the doorways, and the embellishments used in decorating the inner rooms, show that the design of this building was considerably modified by the Musalmáns, even if it was not constructed by them altogether. A little to the south of this is a very fine temple, of which the outer and inner walls are covered with spirited basso-relievos, representing hunting scenes and incidents in the *Ramáyana*. The four centre pillars are of a kind of black marble, handsomely carved. The flooring of the temple, originally large slabs of stone, has

to the king of Burma. Disputes on matters of trade led to the second Anglo-Burmese war of 1852, at the close of which the present District of Hanthawadi, with the rest of the Pegu and Irawadi Divisions and part of the present Tenasserim Division, was annexed.

Population.—Continual war and the cruelties of successive sovereigns had depopulated the country. In 1855, when Hanthawadi included all the tracts alluded to above, the population, including that of Rangoon town, was returned as 137,130. In 1881, the Census showed that there were 427,720 persons, on an area of 4236 square miles, dwelling in 1 town and 1393 villages, and occupying 72,115 houses. Number of persons per square mile, 101; villages per square mile, 3·33; houses per square mile, 17·8; number of persons per house, 5·9. The total agricultural population numbered 308,118; and the non-agricultural, 119,602. Classified according to sex, there were 239,018 males and 188,702 females. Classified according to religion, there were 408,016 Buddhists, 470 Nat-worshippers, 7908 Hindus, 4085 Muhammadans, 7227 Christians, 11 Brahmos, and 3 Pársís. Classified according to occupation, 4371 males and 313 females were returned as belonging to Class I., or professional; 1225 males and 2522 females to Class II., or domestic; 14,469 males and 3663 females to Class III., or commercial; 88,504 males and 44,894 females to Class IV., or agricultural; 17,605 males and 17,966 females to Class V., or industrial; and 112,844 males and 119,314 females to Class VI., or indefinite and non-productive. The chief towns (exclusive of Rangoon, which is a District by itself) are—Pegu, with 5891 inhabitants; Twan-te, once an important place, but now a small village; Pyawbway, with 2043 inhabitants; and Tanmanaing, the head-quarters of the Pyawbway township, with 1603 inhabitants. Of the towns and villages of the District, 601 contain less than 200 inhabitants, 594 from 200 to 500, 149 from 500 to 1000, 45 from 1000 to 2000, 4 from 2000 to 3000, and 1 above 5000 inhabitants.

Antiquities.—The principal pagodas in the District are the Shwe-dagon and the Sandaw at Twan-te. The Shwe-dagon is the most celebrated object of worship in all the Indo-Chinese countries, as enshrining several hairs of Gautama Buddha. Not far from Twan-te stand a few ancient pagodas, indicating the site of Khappanganagara and Minsladon Hmawbi. Hlaing and Tánbú are sites of more modern, but still ancient towns.

Agriculture.—The District was once highly cultivated; but the continual wars and rebellions, and later on the measures adopted by the Burmese conquerors, depopulated the land. The British annexation gave a new stimulus, and the area under rice (the exportation of which was prohibited in the Burmese times) commenced at once to increase. The richest tract is that lying between the To, the Hlaing, the Pan-

hlaing, and the sea, which now forms the Twan-te and Pyawbway townships. The out-turn varies from 40 baskets (about 12 cwt.) to 30 baskets (9 cwt.) per acre. In 1881–82, the total area under rice was 879,770 acres, and the total area under cultivation, 904,994 acres; in the year following (1882–83) the area under rice was 984,814 acres, and the total area under cultivation, 1,013,019 acres. The cultivable waste in 1881–82 was returned at 2379 square miles, and the uncultivable waste at 421 square miles. Mixed fruit-trees, as mangoes, jaiks, plantains and *mayan* (a kind of acid plum), are grown in abundance, occupying 21,615 acres in 1881–82, and 25,375 acres in 1882–83. At Twan-te is a small grove of Sapodilla plum trees, producing the royal fruit of the Talaings.

In 1860 a pair of buffaloes or plough bullocks cost £10; in 1881 the price had doubled. The average holding of an agriculturist in 1852 was about 10 acres; in 1881 it was, in the case of rice land, nearly 24 acres. As a general rule, an owner of more than 8 acres hires labourers, who are paid by the season and live with the farmer. The engagement includes ploughing, sowing, reaping, threshing, and garnering; but in some parts natives of India are engaged in gangs at the harvest season. The average number of a cultivating family is 5·68, and their average yearly cost of living is about £18, 10s. a year; the average cost of cultivation per acre is £1, 0s. 9d., or £24, 18s. for an average holding. This, with the cost of living, brings the annual expenditure up to £43, 8s. The out-turn would be about 850 baskets, selling at £7 per 100 baskets, or £59, 10s., giving a net gain of about £17.

The District contained, in 1881–82, the following agricultural stock:—53,799 cows and bullocks, 282 horses and ponies, 671 sheep and goats, 7710 pigs, 91,599 buffaloes, 34 elephants, 22,840 carts, 42,753 ploughs, and 7076 boats. The average rent per acre of land fitted for rice, is 6s. 10d.; and the average produce per acre, 864 lbs. The prices ruling in the District in 1881–82, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were —for rice, 11s. 6d.; for cotton, 28s. 9d.; for sugar, 31s. 7½d.; for salt, 5s. 9d.; for tobacco, 34s. 6d.; for oil-seeds, 43s. 1½d.; for cocoa-nut oil, 40s.; and for earth oil, 17s. Skilled labour in 1882–83 cost from 2s. to 2s. 4d. a day; and unskilled labour, 1s.

Natural Calamities.—West of the Hlaing river the country is liable to inundation. No doubt this has always been so; but the embankment along the right bank of the Irawadi, which protects large areas of land in other Districts to the westward, causes the floods—which formerly spread west as well as east—to flow eastward to a greater extent than before, and has not only increased the flooded area, but has made the floods higher than formerly. The flood-water enters by the numerous creeks connecting the Irawadi with the Hlaing, and, passing down the Pan-hlaing, forces back the Hlaing, causing substantial injury.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles manufactured in the District are—salt, pottery, *nga-pí* or fish-paste, mats, and silk and cotton cloth. The pottery and fish-paste alone are exported. Salt is made during the hot weather at various places along the sea-coast, and in the Syriam and Angyi townships, partly by solar evaporation and partly by boiling in earthen pots. The boiling season lasts for about two months, and the average out-turn from each pot may be taken at 250 *viss*, or about 8 cwt., which would sell for £1, 16s. or £1, 18s. The quantity manufactured is decreasing year by year, owing to the cheapness of imported English salt. Pots for salt-boiling are made at Kwôn-chan-gun, and in the adjoining village of Taw-pa-lway in the Pyawbway township. The price per hundred varies from £4, 10s. to £9. A party of four good workmen will turn out from 100 to 125 pots per diem. The cost of 100 baskets of sand is 16s.; of earth, 5s. The mixer gets 2s. a day; the wheel-turner, fashioner, and finisher, each get 6s. per 100 pots. The expenditure during a season for manufacturing 1250 pots is estimated at £50, and the net profit at £25. Ordinary cooking pots cost from 12s. to 16s. per 100 in the cold season, and 10s. in the rains. A water-pot costs 3d. in Rangoon city. At Twan-te are made large water or oil vessels, glazed outside with a mixture of galena and rice-water, and commonly known as 'Pegu jars.' *Nga-pí* and coarse mats, used for ships' holds, are made chiefly in Pyawbway. Silk-worms are reared in the Hlaing township, and silk and cotton cloth are woven in almost every house. The trade of the District centres in RANGOON TOWN.

Communication is carried on mainly by the numerous tidal creeks. The total length of water-way in the District is 492 miles. A new canal has recently been cut from the Rangoon river, opposite Rangoon to To, near Twan-te. There are 112 miles of made roads in the District, the principal being, one from Rangoon towards Prome, now taken up by the Irawadi Valley State Railway; the Rangoon and Taung-gú road from Tauk-kyan to Pegu, crossing the Pegu river by a wooden bridge, and proceeding northwards along the eastern foot of the Pegu Yomas. The Rangoon and Irawadi Valley State Railway runs nearly due north for 60½ miles to the Minin river, with stations at Pauk-taw, Hlaw-ga, Hmawbi, Taik-gyi, and Okkan. The line is single, with a gauge of 3·282 feet. Another line is being constructed from Rangoon to Taung-gú. In 1884 it was finished as far as Pegu.

Revenue.—No records exist showing the exact revenue raised before British annexation. The amounts were fixed in *viss* (3·65 lbs.) of Gwek-ni silver, each of which is equivalent to about £13. The total sum paid by the people in what is now Hanthawadi, Pegu, and a part of Thonegwa, has been estimated at about £114,560. In 1855–56, the

net revenue was £54,509; in 1875–76, £96,040. The gross revenue of Hanthawadi District in 1881–82 (the town of Rangoon not included) was £281,145; and the land revenue, £216,004. In the following year, the gross revenue was £266,420 and the land revenue £216,968. The land revenue, capitation tax, and fisheries yield almost the entire income. The fisheries here, as elsewhere in the Province, are leased out for a term of five years by auction, and only *boná fide* fishermen can bid.

Administration. — Under Burmese rule, Hanthawadi and Pegu

Purána *bázár.* All these *bázárs* are well lined with shops, and form a compact business quarter. The Musalmáns reside chiefly to the east,

death, who was in direct communication with the central Government at Ava. When the British took possession, the local jurisdictions were to a great extent retained. A Deputy Commissioner was placed in charge of the District; and a *myo-ok* was appointed to each township, with limited judicial, fiscal, and police powers; with *thugyís* in charge of circles, and *gomys* under them in charge of village tracts.

Little alteration has been made in the general principles of administration, with four exceptions—(1) the formation in 1861–62 of a regular police; (2) a few years later, of an independent prison department; (3) later still, of an educational department; and (4) the gradual division of the District, as revenue, population, and administrative labour increased, culminating in the complete separation of Rangoon town, and the formation in 1883 of three out of the seven townships into a new District called Pegu. Hanthawadi District now comprises two sub-divisions, each containing two townships. The number of revenue circles is 29. There are 6 courts, presided over by 26 officers exercising civil, criminal, and revenue powers. The Deputy Commissioner, as magistrate, can try all offences not punishable with death, and he hears all civil appeals. The average distance between a village and the nearest court is 26 miles. Gang robberies, which formerly were frequent, are now of rare occurrence. The police force in 1881–82 consisted of 2 superior officers, with 53 subordinate officers and 512 men; and cost in that year, £14,268, of which £14,094 was paid from imperial, and £174 from local funds. The Central and District prison is at Rangoon.

Climate, etc.—The climate is generally depressing, though December and January are cool and bracing months, with little rain. The rains last from about the middle of May till the early part of November, and their commencement and ending is usually marked by considerable electrical disturbance. The average annual rainfall at Rangoon, which may be taken as the same as that of the whole District, is 98·71 inches: the rainfall at Rangoon in 1881 was 100·4 inches. In the same year the temperature ranged between 106° F.

as the maximum, and 57° as the minimum. Fever, rheumatism, and pulmonary complaints are the most prevalent diseases. The hospital is in Rangoon town. The number of births registered in the District in 1881 was 7219, and deaths 5158: and in 1883—births, 8320; deaths, 5643.

Hanumán-betta.—Peak of the Bráhmagiri, Mysore State. Height above sea-level, 5276 feet.

Hanumángarh.—District and town in Bíkaner State, Rájputána.—*See* BHATNAIR.

ness of imported English salt. Pots for salt-boiling are made at Kwôn-chan-gun, and in the adjoining village of Taw-na-lwav in the

Hápur (*Hauper*).—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Hápur, Saráwa, Garhmukhtesar and Púth, lying along the western bank of the Ganges, and irrigated by distributaries from the Ganges Canal. Total area, 408 square miles, of which 284 are cultivated. Area assessed for Government revenue, 389½ square miles, of which 269¼ square miles are cultivated, 63 square miles cultivable, and the remainder uncultivable waste. Population (1872) 205,140; (1881) 199,898, namely, males 105,414, and females 94,484, showing a decrease of 5242 in the nine years since 1872. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 150,258; Muhammadans, 49,509; Jains, 95; and 'others,' 36. Of 301 villages comprising the *tahsíl* in 1881, 167 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue (at time of settlement), £29,412; total Government revenue, £32,534; rental paid by cultivators, £59,568; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 3d. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court and 5 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 66 men; village watchmen, 448.

Hápur (*Hauper*).—Town and municipality in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Hápur *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 43′ 20″ N., long. 77° 49′ 45″ E. Lies on the Meerut and Bulandshahr road, 18 miles south of Meerut city. Founded, according to tradition, in 983 A.D. by the Dor chieftain Hardatta, from whom it took the name of Harípur. Perron, the French general in the service of the Maráthá chief Sindhia, established in the neighbourhood a system of *jágírs* or grants for his disabled veterans. During the Mutiny, Walidád Khán of Málágarh threatened Hápur, but was obliged by the loyal Játs of Bhatona to retire. Several fine groves surround the town, but the wall and ditch have fallen out of repair, and only the names of the five gates now remain. Population (1872) 14,544; (1881) 13,212, namely, males 6861, and females 6351. In 1881, Hindus numbered 7484; Muhammadans, 5646; and Jains, 80; Christian, 1; and 1 'other.' Area of town site, 293 acres. Towards the Jamá Masjid or principal mosque,

in the centre of the town, the site is somewhat high, but as a rule it is level, and in places lower than the surrounding fields. Around the town on all sides are numerous small excavations often filled with water. The principal *bázár*, known as the Purána (old) *bázár*, runs from the Meerut to the Delhi gate. West of this are the Purána (old) and Náya (new) *mandís* or markets, and Mahádeoganj, all large business places running parallel to each other, and bounded on the north by the Khubári *bázár*, and on the south by the Bazáz (cloth merchants) and Halwái (sweetmeat makers) *bázárs*, which run out west from the Purána *bázár*. All these *bázárs* are well lined with shops, and form a compact business quarter. The Musalmáns reside chiefly to the east, and here the character of the town is that of a large agricultural village full of cattle and all the appliances of husbandry. In the west, the houses are substantial and the streets metalled and drained with saucer-shaped brick drains; but to the east and throughout the suburbs, apart from the principal roads, the streets are uneven and unmade. Water-supply good. *Tahsíli*, police station, school-house, dispensary, 3 *saráis*, 28 mosques, 29 temples. There is an encamping ground for troops outside the town. Considerable trade in sugar, grain, cotton, timber, bamboos, and brass utensils. Municipal revenue in 1875–76, £1208; in 1881–82, £1512; from taxes, £1405, or 2s. 1½d. per head of population. The town was formerly the head-quarters of the famous Hápur Stud.

Harái.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in the north-east of Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; comprising 90 villages, of which 89 are inhabited. It consists of a mountainous country north of Amarwára, and a lowland tract opening on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and containing a masonry fort, where the chief resides. Area, 164 square miles. Population (1881) 13,449, namely, males 6881, and females 6568. Number of houses, 2511. The chief is a Gond, and receives from Government £512 per annum, in commutation of former privileges. Chief village, Harái, lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 79° 18′ E. Population (1881) 1797, inhabiting 420 houses.

Harámak.—Mountain in Kashmír State, Punjab; a peak of the lofty range which bounds that kingdom on the north. Lat. 34° 26′ N., long. 75° E. Thornton states that a small lake, known as Gangá Bal, nestles on its northern slope, and forms an object of great veneration to the Hindus. Estimated elevation above sea-level, 13,000.

Haráotí (*Harowtee*).—Tract in Rájputána.—*See* KOTAH.

Ganges, Rámgangá, Garra, ...

first three are navigable by boats of 500 *maunds* or about 17 tons burden. The Gúmti is here a small river, whose dry-weather discharge is not more than 300 cubic feet; it has high sandy banks, and is easily fordable. The Sái is also an insignificant stream in Hardoi.

There are no river marts in the District except Sándi on the Garra,

The ruins cover an area 3 miles in circumference, scattered over with large broken bricks. The principal remains occupy a mound forming an irregular square, with sides about half a mile in length. On the western side, where the mass of ruins lie, the mound rises to a height of 60 feet, and encloses solid walls built of huge bricks, apparently belonging to some extensive building. Coins of early date have been picked up amongst the débris. Tradition assigns the foundation of the ancient city to an eponymous Rájá Harappa. The only modern public building is a police station; but till quite recently, Harappa ranked as head-quarters of a *tahsíl.* It is a station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway.

Harchoká.—Village in Cháng Bhakár State, Chutiá Nágpur. Lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., long. 81° 45′ 30″ E.; situated on the Muwáhi river near the northern boundary of the State. Remains of extensive rock excavations, supposed to be temples and monasteries, were discovered here a few years ago.

Hardá.—Western *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Area, 1942 square miles, containing 1 town and 584 villages, with 30,222 houses. Total population (1881) 146,782, namely, males 76,183, and females 70,599; average density of population, 75·58 persons per square mile; number of persons per village, 251. Of the total number of villages, 518 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 926 square miles, or less than half, are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 476 square miles were returned in 1881 as under cultivation; 309 square miles as cultivable; and 141 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses, £14,477, or 11⅜d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £49,108, or an average of 2s. 11d. per cultivated acre. The total adult male and female population in 1881 numbered 47,236, or 32·18 per cent. of the total *tahsíl* population; average available area of cultivated and cultivable land, 13 acres per head. The *tahsíl* contains (1884) 1 criminal and 3 civil courts; number of police stations (*thánás*), 4, besides 8 outpost stations; strength of police force, 176 men.

Hardá.—Town and municipality in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Hardá *tahsíl.* Lat. 22° 21′ N., long. 77° 8′ E.; lying on the high road to Bombay. Being a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, it has superseded Handia. [illegible] town, but the wall and ditch have fallen out of repair, and only the names of the five gates now remain. Population (1872) 14,544; (1881) 13,212, namely, males 6861, and females 6351. In 1881, Hindus numbered 7484; Muhammadans, 5646; and Jains, 80; Christian, 1; and 1 'other.' Area of town site, 293 acres. Towards the Jamá Masjid or principal mosque,

Malcolm made the town his head-quarters. Since the cession in 1844, this already thriving place has been further improved, mainly by Mr. J. F. Beddy, formerly Assistant Commissioner at Hardá, who among other benefits secured a good water-supply by throwing a dam across the river. Principal trade, export of grain and oil-seeds. Municipal income (1882–83), £3344, of which £2765 was derived from taxation, mainly octroi dues; average incidence of taxation, 5s. 4⅛d. per head.

Hardoi. — A District of Oudh in the Sítápur Division or Commissionership, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 53′ and 27° 47′ N. lat., and between 79° 44′ and 80° 52′ E. long. In shape, the District forms an irregular parallelogram between the Gúmti and Ganges; greatest length from north-west to south-east, 78 miles; average breadth, 46 miles. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur and Kheri; on the east by Sítápur, the Gúmti marking the boundary line; on the south by Lucknow and Unáo; and on the west by Farukhábád, from which it is separated by the Ganges. Area, 2311·6 square miles. Population (1881) 987,630 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at HARDOI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Hardoi is a level District, the highest point lying north of Piháni, near the Gúmti, 490 feet above sea-level. The country continues high along the Gúmti, with a breadth of from 3 to 8 miles, sinking eastward into the central plain, which is from 10 to 20 miles broad, and intersected by the Sái river. Beyond this plain the country again rises, forming the watershed between the Sái and Garra, with other tributaries of the Ganges, the elevation being from 470 to 480 feet. The main portion of the District is formed by the valley of the Sái. Beyond the Garra lies the valley of the Ganges, with an elevation of 396 feet at Sándi. Towards the Ganges, near Sándi and Bílgrám, the land is uneven, and often rises into hillocks of sand, cultivated at the base, and their slopes covered with lofty *múnj* grass, whose large waving white plumes form a graceful feature in the landscape. Wide *úsar* or saline plains run through the middle of the District on each side of the line of railway, and are almost wholly uncultivable. The soil of Hardoi is lighter than that of perhaps any other District of Oudh, 27 per cent. being sand, 56 per cent. loam, and 17 per cent. clay. The rivers of Hardoi, commencing from the west, are the Ganges, Rámgangá, Garra, Sukhetá, Sái, Báita, and Gúmti. The first three are navigable by boats of 500 *maunds* or about 17 tons burden. The Gúmti is here a small river, whose dry-weather discharge is not more than 300 cubic feet; it has high sandy banks, and is easily fordable. The Sái is also an insignificant stream in Hardoi.

There are no river marts in the District except Sándi on the Garra,

and no fisheries or river-side industries are carried on, with the exception of a little timber traffic on the Ganges. Several large *jhíls* or lakes are scattered throughout the District, the largest being that of Sándi, which is 3 miles long by from 1 to 2 miles broad. These *jhíls* are much used for irrigation, 126,000 acres being watered from them. Large tracts of forest jungle still exist, and formerly afforded shelter to bands of robbers. Tigers have been exterminated, but leopards are still found in the northern jungles. Antelope, spotted deer, and *nilgái* are common. Wild duck, teal, grey duck, and the common goose are more abundant in Hardoi than in any other District of Oudh; and the chain of *jhíls* which dot the lower levels of the Sái valley abound in all kinds of water-fowl. Fine *rohu* fish are found in the Garra and Rámgangá rivers.

History.—The early traditions of this District go back to the days of the *Mahábhárata*, and relate how Balárám, the brother of Krishna, accompanied by Bráhmans, was making a tour of the sacred places of the land. On coming on Nimkhár, he found certain holy Rishis engaged in hearing the sacred books read; and as one of them would not rise to salute him, he smote off his head with a blade of *kusá* grass. In order to purge himself of his guilt, it was required of him that he should rid the holy men of a certain demon named Bíl, who dwelt in a lonely spot where now stands the town of Bílgrám, and who used to persecute the worshippers at Nimkhár, by raining blood and filth upon their sacrifices. Balárám accordingly slew the demon, and a low mound at Bílgrám is still pointed out as the site of his abode.

Passing from mythological times, the first authentic records of Hardoi are connected with the Musálman colonization. Báwan was occupied by Sayyid Sálár Masáúd in 1028 A.D. The Shaikhs declare that they conquered Bílgrám in 1013, but the permanent Muhammadan occupation did not commence till 1217. Gopámau was the earliest conquest in Oudh effected by Sayyid Sálár; and descendants of the early conquerors are still to be found. The settlement of Páli by a Pánde Bráhman, a Risaldár, and a Shaikh, all three of whom are represented at this day by men of property in the neighbourhood, is a curious illustration of the occasional stability of oriental families. Isauli in Bangar was also conquered by Sayyid Sálár; but Sándi and Sándíla were not occupied until long afterwards. The latter was the capital of a Pási kingdom, which seems to have spread over the country down both banks of the Gúmti and the Sái, extending from its original seat at Dhaurahra and Mitauli. The Pásis are still very powerful in Hardoi.

Owing to the situation of the District on the eastern side of the Ganges, and to the fact of its commanding the fords near the great city of Kanauj, Hardoi formed the scene of many sanguinary battles between the rival Afghán and Mughal Empires. It was here that the Sharki kings

of Jaunpur mustered their forces, and bid defiance to the Lodi sovereigns of Delhi. Here, again, the Khilji for a brief space rallied his forces against the Mughals, and established his head-quarters at Bílgrám. In yet later times, Hardoi formed the border-land between the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh and the Rohillá Afgháns. It was this constant passage of armies which rendered the formation of any organized government in Hardoi impossible till after the accession of Akbar. In his time, the whole of the north of the District was a jungle, and the few settlements which had been made there were mere military outposts. With the Mughals cannon came into general use; and the fords of the Ganges lost their former strategical importance, as the crossing of troops could be protected by the new engine of warfare. Hardoi then ceased to be the natural meeting-place of eastern and western India; jungles were cleared; new Muhammadan colonies were established at Gopámau by Akbar, and at Sháhábád and Sándi by Sháh Jahán.

It is not clear what were the precise relations of these Musalmán chieftains to their Hindu neighbours. The Bílgrám family pretend to have had authority over *parganás* Báwan, Sándi, and Hardoi. But the few villages comprising their present estate appeared to have been slowly acquired by purchase at different times, extending over a long period. In like manner, the Sándíla Musalmáns are not even mentioned by Colonel Sleeman as landlords, and the larger part of their property was acquired at a very recent date. The country was probably covered with jungle, and the few scattered villages of Hindus were dominated by the brick forts of the Musalmáns. The principal landed clans of Rájputs are the following:—The Ahbans, really Cháwars, who claim to be sprung from Rájá Gopi, and to have occupied GOPAMAU, having previously ousted the Thatheras, about 100 A.D. The Sombansís came from Kumhráwán to Sándi about 1400. Their chief was compelled to yield to the Musalmáns, but he retained Sándi for some time, and then abandoned it for Sivajípur, where his descendant still remains. The Gaurs, the most powerful clan in the District, occupy the central tract, having, as alleged, driven out the Thatheras from Báwan and Sára during the time of the Kanauj sovereignty, about 1118. The Nikumbhs say that they came from Alwár (Ulwur) about 1450; the Katiars from Farukhábád about 1550; and the Bais of Gundwá from Baiswára.

Under native rule, Hardoi was the most turbulent of all the Districts of Oudh. It was divided into the *chaklás* of Sándíla, Sándi, Páli, and Tandiáon, the latter including the wild tract of Bangar, east of and along the Sái, in which the Pásis, the ancestral lords of the soil, had taken refuge, and maintained a guerilla warfare against all authority, Hindu or Musalmán, supported in many cases by their Rájput neighbours. Ahrori, in *parganá* Gopámau, was their main residence. Colonel

Sleeman in his 'Diary,' under date 22nd January 1849, thus describes the state of this part of the country: 'Tandiáon, 8 miles west. The country level; in parts well cultivated, particularly in the vicinity of villages; but a large portion of the surface is covered with jungle, useful only to robbers and refractory landholders, who abound in the *parganá* of Bangar. In this respect, it is reputed one of the worst Districts of Oudh. Within the last few years, the king's troops have been frequently beaten and driven out with loss, even when commanded by a European officer. The landholders and armed peasantry of the different villages unite their quotas of auxiliaries, and concentrate at a given signal upon the troops when they are in pursuit of robbers and rebels. Almost every able-bodied man of every village in Bangar is trained to the use of arms; and none of the king's troops, save those who are regularly disciplined and commanded by European officers, will venture to move against a landholder of this District. When the local authorities cannot obtain the use of such troops, they are obliged to conciliate the most powerful and unscrupulous by reductions in the assessment of the lands, or additions to their *nankár*.'

This, be it remembered, was written in 1849, shortly before the annexation. Hardoi, together with the rest of Oudh, became British territory under Lord Dalhousie's Proclamation of February 1856. Since the Sepoy rebellion in 1857, civil order has been firmly established, and nothing has occurred to disturb the peace of the District.

Population.—The population of Hardoi District, according to the Census of 1869, amounted to 931,377 persons. In 1881, the population was returned at 987,630, showing an increase of 56,253, or 6 per cent., during the twelve years since 1869. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly stated as follows:—Area of District, 2311·6 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1882; houses, 147,073. Total population (1881) 987,630, namely, males 531,704, and females 455,926; proportion of males, 53·8 per cent. Average density of population, 427 per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, ·81; persons per town or village, 524; houses per square mile, 63·6; persons per house, 6·7. Classified according to religion, the Hindus number 884,967, of whom 54·1 per cent. are males and 45·9 per cent. females. Female infanticide was formerly extremely common in Hardoi, and the small proportion of females is probably due to the fact that the offence has not yet been altogether stamped out. The Muhammadans number 102,572, of whom 51·8 per cent. are males and 48·2 per cent. females; Christians, European and native, 75; Sikhs, 15; and Jain, 1.

The most numerous caste are the Chamárs, 160,939, who form 18 per cent. of the Hindu population. Next in order of number

come the Bráhmans, 108,981; and the 44 clans of Rájputs, 73,808. All these castes are mostly yeoman proprietors and cultivators. The other principal high castes are—Baniyás, 25,487; and Káyasths, 9495. Of lower castes, there are—Ahírs, 70,358; Kachhis, 87,680; Kúrmis, 19,014; Pásis, 72,326; Gadárias, 35,500; Kahárs, 24,661. The strongest sections among the Muhammadan population are the Patháns, Shaikhs, Juláhás (Muhammadan weavers), Sayyids, and Mughals; but the Census Report does not give the Muhammadan population according to race or clan. In religion, the Muhammadans are returned as—Sunnís, 99,458; Shiás, 3114. The Musalmáns reside principally in the large towns, but even in these they form the minority of the population. In some cases they have inhibited the building of temples; and recently, on a protest being made against a temple being erected by a Hindu Rájá on his own land in the town of Sándíla, it appeared on inquiry that no Hindu temple had ever been built in the town, owing to the bigotry of the Muhammadans. But such instances are not common, and Musalmáns often join in the *Rámlílá*, and other religious celebrations of the Hindus. Hardoi has a larger urban population than any other Oudh District except Lucknow. Out of 14 towns in Oudh containing upwards of 10,000 inhabitants, 5 are situated within this District. None of them, however, are places of any trade, and only one, Sándi, is situated on a navigable river. The 9 largest towns and their populations are—SHAHABAD, population (1881) 18,510; SANDILA, 14,865; BILGRAM, 11,067; MALLANWAN, 10,970; HARDOI, 10,026; SANDI, 9810; PIHANI, 7540; GOPAMAU, 5374; and MADHUGANJ, 3088,—all of which see separately. Of these, the first seven are regularly constituted municipalities. The several villages and townships are thus classified in the Census Report of 1881:—584 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 652 from 200 to 500; 418 from 500 to 1000; 184 from 1000 to 2000; 36 from 2000 to 5000; 3 from 5000 to 10,000; and 5 from 10,000 upwards.

As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the population into the following six main groups:—Class (1) Professional, including Government servants, civil and military, and the learned professions, 7932; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1432; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 8274; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 259,644; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 42,009; (6) indefinite and unproductive (comprising 24,626 general labourers, and 187,787 male children and persons of unspecified occupations), 212,413.

The principal religious fairs are the following:—At Bílgrám, in September, on the occasion of the *Rámlílá* festival, lasting ten days, and attended by about 40,000 persons; at Hattia Haran, during the whole month of Bhádra (August—September), attended by 100,000

persons; at Barsuya, in April and November, the *Paramhansa Samádh* festival, lasting for a single day on each occasion, and attended by from 15,000 to 20,000 persons. These, together with several smaller fairs, are held for religious purposes, and have no commercial importance.

Agriculture. — Rice, wheat, and other food-grains form the great staples of agriculture. With regard to the crops cultivated, the seasons of sowing and reaping, rates of rent, condition of the cultivators, etc., the remarks on these heads made in the articles KHERI and LUCKNOW apply equally to this District. The area under crops is 863,004 acres, or 1349 square miles, being more than half the entire area. The remaining area consists of 394,309 acres available for cultivation and for grazing lands, and 214,796 acres of uncultivable waste. The area under each description of crop in 1882–83, including land bearing two crops, is thus returned:—Wheat, 449,379 acres; rice, 25,062 acres; other food-grains, 554,646 acres; oil-seeds, 8902 acres; sugar-cane, 10,263 acres; cotton, 14,014 acres; opium, 8014 acres; indigo, 6889 acres; fibres, 2426 acres; tobacco, 7928 acres; and vegetables, 13,086 acres: total (including land bearing two crops), 1,100,609 acres. The average out-turn of the different crops in 1882–83 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 420 lbs. per acre; rice, 267 lbs.; inferior food-grains, 370 lbs.; cotton, 64 lbs.; other fibres, 136 lbs.; oil-seeds, 70 lbs.; opium, 20 lbs.; sugar, 1834 lbs.; and tobacco, 264 lbs. an acre. Excluding revenue-free grants, the area of the District is thus classified:—59 per cent. under crops; 2 per cent. groves; 25 per cent. cultivable waste; 5½ per cent. barren; 5½ per cent. water area; 3 per cent. roads and village sites. A plough and pair of oxen are able to cultivate 6 acres of loam or clay, or 8 acres of sandy soil. The agricultural stock in the District in 1882–83 was returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 377,351; horses, 1463; ponies, 13,159; donkeys, 3552; sheep and goats, 106,142; pigs, 37,139; carts, 4756; ploughs, 115,417. The average price of wheat and *bájra* for the three decennial periods ending 1870 are returned as follows:—1841–50, wheat 3s. 5½d. per cwt., *bájra* 3s. 2d. per cwt.; 1851–60, wheat 3s. 2d., *bájra* 3s. 1d.; 1861–70, wheat 4s. 2d., *bájra* 4s. 3d. per cwt. The average rates in 1870 for food-grains at the Mádhuganj mart were as follows:—Common unhusked rice, 4s. 9½d. per cwt.; common husked rice, 10s. 8d.; wheat, 5s. 11d.; barley, 4s. 2d.; *bájra*, 5s. 4d.; *joár*, 5s. 1d.; gram, 4s. 7d.; *arhar*, 4s. 4d.; *urid*, 7s. 6d.; *moth*, 7s.; *múg*, 5s. 7d.; *masuri*, 4s. 8d. per cwt. The average prices for staple food products in 1883 were returned as follows: — Wheat, 5s. 7d.; gram, 4s.; rice (best), 8s. 7d.; rice (common), 7s.; sugar (refined), £2, 6s.; and *gur* or crude sugar, 8s. 7d. per cwt. The food-grains in common use among the peasantry are maize, *kodo*, *bájra*, and *joár*, made into bread-cakes; barley and gram

parched and eaten dry; and peas, *moth*, and *urid* as pottage. Two meals are taken a day, at noon and sundown. Fish are abundant, and ought to form an important article of diet, but owing to the dearness of salt, the people are unable to cure them; and thus, while they are used as manure at one time of the year, there is a scarcity during the remaining months.

Landed property in Hardoi is more evenly divided under the different tenures than is usual in Oudh. The distribution is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 392 villages; *zamíndárí*, 802; *pattidárí*, 765 villages. The several clans of Rájputs hold 1163 villages; the Musalmáns come next with 409; and following them are the Káyasths with 158, and the Bráhmans with 157. Hardoi is conspicuous for the absence of the great feudal chiefships so common in other Oudh Districts. There are only 17 *tálukdárs*, holding altogether 432 villages (comprising 364,925 acres), and paying £36,035 of Government revenue. The largest estates are those of Khaslat Husain, 53,857 acres, paying £5116; and of Rájá Tilak Singh, 43,166 acres, paying £4406 of Government revenue. The small proprietors number 21,758, holding 1588 villages, covering 1,105,000 acres, or an average of 50 acres each. The total male agricultural population of Hardoi District in 1881 amounted to 258,580, cultivating an average of 3·57 acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil, amounted to 724,135, or 73·32 per cent. of the District population. Of the total District area of 2311·6 square miles, 2190 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 1408 square miles are under cultivation; 483 square miles are cultivable, and the remainder uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £141,787, or 3s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental actually paid by cultivators, including cesses, £295,534, or 6s. 4¾d. per cultivated acre. The average wages of a skilled workman is 7½d., and of an unskilled workman, 5¼d. per diem.

Communications, Trade, Commerce, etc.—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway from Lucknow to Sháhjahánpur runs through Hardoi for a distance of 62 miles, with stations at Sándíla, Kachoná, Sítápur road, Hardoi, Chándpur, and Sháhábád. There are also 329 miles of raised and bridged roads, and 73 miles of minor roads, intersecting the District. The principal imports are cotton, salt, country cloth, and European piece-goods; the exports are food-grains, sugar, tobacco, horned cattle, and hides. In 1875, the value of the imports was returned at £102,952, and the exports at £62,977. The only manufacture of any note carried on is in the weaving of a peculiar description of muslin known as *mahmudí*.

Administration.—The judicial staff consists of 3 European and 6 native magistrates, besides 9 native honorary magistrates, all of whom

have also civil and revenue powers. The total revenue of the District in 1871 amounted to £158,676, of which £145,213, or 90 per cent., was derived from the land; and the civil expenditure to £18,705. At the recent revised land settlement, between 1864 and 1868, the Government land revenue demand was enhanced by 42 per cent. In 1875 the gross revenue amounted to £170,952, of which the land contributed £151,396; total civil expenditure, £18,476. The total revenue of the District showed a slight falling off in 1881-82, and amounted to £161,897, of which the land-tax contributed £131,994; civil expenditure, £24,081. The regular police force in 1881-82 consisted of 448 officers and men, maintained at a cost to Government of £5903; the village watch or rural police numbered 1254, maintained by the landholders or villagers at a cost of £3592; and the municipal force of 137 men, costing £787 from municipal funds. Hardoi District possesses a singular immunity from crime; daily average number of prisoners in the District jail and lock-up in 1882-83, 278·7. Education has made considerable progress. In 1873 there were 4762 scholars attending 102 schools (of which 13 were girls' schools). By 1875 the number of schools had increased to 142, and of pupils to 5877. In 1881 there was a total of 153 Government-inspected schools, with a roll of 5108 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided and uninspected schools; and the Census Report in 1881 returned 5479 boys and 112 girls as under instruction, besides 18,838 males and 206 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. There are no newspapers, or literary or educational societies, in the District.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Hardoi does not differ from that of Oudh generally, except that it has perhaps the smallest rainfall of any District in the Province. The average annual rainfall for the fifteen years ending 1882 was about 35½ inches, that of the Province generally being about 42. In 1873, the rainfall was only 21 inches, in 1874, 31 inches, and in 1881, 34·6 inches, being the lowest recorded in Oudh in each year. The average mean monthly temperature for the three years 1869 to 1871 was as follows:—January, 59° F.; February, 66½°; March, 75°; April, 75°; May, 92½°; June, 94½°; July, 87°; August, 86½°; September, 82½°; October, 77°; November, 69°; December, 61° F. No later thermometrical returns are available. Malarial fevers are the only prevailing endemic disease of the District, and are attributable to the extensive marshes. Epidemic cholera occasionally occurs, and small-pox prevails annually, generally in the cold season. Cattle diseases known as *paschima* and *kurá* are common. The total number of deaths registered in the District in 1882 was 29,116, or at the rate of 29·41 per thousand of the population. Of the deaths, 22,009, or 23·86 per thousand, were assigned to fevers; 1347, or 1·46 per thousand, to small-pox; and 1013, or 1·10 per thousand, to

cholera. Charitable dispensaries at Hardoi, Sándíla, Sháhábád, and Bilgrám afforded medical relief in 1883 to 36,928 out-door and 1076 in-door patients. [For further information regarding Hardoi District, see the *Settlement Report*, by Messrs. E. O. Bradford, A. H. Harrington, and W. Blennerhassett (1875-76); the *North-Western Provinces and Oudh Census Report* for 1881; the *Oudh Gazetteer* (vol. ii., Lucknow, 1877); and the *Administrative and Departmental Reports for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh*, 1880-1883.]

Hardoi.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hardoi District, Oudh; lying between 27° 9′ and 27° 39′ N. lat., and between 79° 52′ 30″ and 80° 31′ E. long., and bounded on the north by Sháhábád *tahsíl*, on the east by Mísríkh *tahsíl* of Sítápur, on the south by Sándíla and Bílgrám *tahsíls*, and on the west by Bílgrám. Area, 638 square miles, of which 359 are cultivated. Population (1869) 227,909; (1881) 261,107, namely, Hindus, 242,026; Muhammadans, 19,011; and 'others,' 70; males numbered 142,184, and females 118,923. Increase of population in the twelve years since 1869, 33,198, or 14·6 per cent. Number of villages or towns, 467, of which 280 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; average density of population, 409 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the 5 *parganás* of Bangar, Gopámau, Sára (South), Báwan, and Barwán. It contains 1 civil and 6 criminal courts, including the head-quarter courts; 2 police circles (*thánás*); regular police, 45 men; municipal police, 21; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 675.

Hardoi.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Hardoi District, Oudh; on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, 63 miles from Lucknow, and 39 from Sháhjahánpur. Lat. 27° 23′ 40″ N., long. 80° 10′ 5″ E. The town appears to have been founded more than 700 years ago by a body of Chamár Gaurs from Narkanjári, near Indore, who drove out the Thatheras and destroyed their fortress, the remains of which still exist in the shape of large mounds. The present town is largely built of bricks dug out of the old Thathera remains. Hardoi itself is a place of no importance. It was selected as the head-quarters of the District on the occupation of the country after the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857, apparently for its central position. Population (1872) 7156; (1881) 10,026, namely, males 6020, and females 4006. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 7852; Muhammadans, 2107; Christians, 53; and 'others,' 14. Area of town site, 480 acres. The Government buildings consist of the usual courts, police station, jail, school, dispensary, *tahsíldár's* office, etc. Bi-weekly market. Hardoi has been constituted a municipality under Act xv. of 1873; revenue in 1881-82, £800, derived almost entirely from octroi; expenditure, £783.

Hardoi.—*Parganá* of *tahsíl* Digbijaiganj, Rái Bareli District, Oudh;

bounded on the north by the little river Naiya, on the east by Simráuta, on the south by Rái Bareli, and on the west by Bachhráwán *parganás*. The land was formerly occupied by the Bhars, who succeeded in defeating a party of Sayyid Sálár's invading force about 1030 A.D. They continued to hold this *parganá*, just in the centre of Oudh, and far from any seat of civilisation, 400 years longer, till the beginning of the 15th century, when they were attacked and utterly annihilated by Ibráhím Sharki of Jáunpur, who bestowed the estate upon one of his followers, Sayyid Jalál-ud-dín, whose descendants still reside in the town. Area, 15,561 acres; Government land-tax, £3996, or at the rate of 5s. 1½d. per acre. Population (1869) 15,706, residing in 23 villages, of which 15 were *tálukdári* and 8 the property of village communities. Population (1881) 13,173, namely, males 6397, and females 6776, showing a decrease of 2533, or 16·1 per cent., in the twelve years since 1869. The soil is very fertile, yielding the best crops; and rents in consequence are high. In one township, Asni—celebrated for its tobacco—the rents are as high as £4, 16s. per acre. Kurmís are the chief cultivating caste. Saltpetre and salt were formerly manufactured, but this industry has been discontinued since the British annexation. Two small markets, in Atehra and Pára Khurd. About 15,000 *maunds* of wheat are annually exported to Lucknow and Cawnpur.

Hardoi.—Town in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Hardoi *tahsíl;* situated on the road from Digbijaiganj to Bachhráwán, 12 miles north of Rái Bareli town, and 4 miles east of Thulendi. Lat. 26° 28′ N., long. 81° 15′ E. Founded by a Bhar chief named Hardoi, prior to Masáúd's unsuccessful invasion. On the extermination of the Bhars by Sultán Ibráhím of Jáunpur, a mud fort was built here, the ruins of which still exist. Two masonry mosques, and *idgah*, and Hindu temple.

Harduaganj.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lies in the open plain, 6 miles east of Alígarh. Lat. 27° 56′ 30″ N., long. 78° 11′ 40″ E. Area, 80 acres. Population (1872) 5205; (1881) 4520, namely, 3901 Hindus, 585 Muhammadans, and 34 Jains. Founded by Hardwá or Balárám, brother of Krishna, but containing no remains to justify this mythical antiquity. Occupied by Chauhán Rájputs after the Musalmán conquest of Delhi. Plundered during the Mutiny by neighbouring villagers. Fine open *bázár* lined with good shops, police station, post-office, school. Rámpur station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway lies 3 miles north; and the Ganges Canal, passing 1 mile east, carries off most of the local traffic. Imports—salt, timber, and bamboos; exports—cotton and grain. The canal irrigates the surrounding lands. A small municipal revenue is raised for police and conservancy purposes under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Hardwár.—Ancient historical town and place of pilgrimage in Sahá-

ranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 57′ 30″ N., long. 78° 12′ 52″ E. Population (1872) 4800; (1881) 3614. Distant from Rúrki (Roorkee) 17 miles north-east; from Sahâranpur town 39 miles north-east. Situated on the right bank of the Ganges, at the foot of the Siwálik Hills, close by the gorge through which the river debouches upon the plains. On the opposite shore rises the hill of Chandi Pahár, whose summit is crowned by a temple, connected with those of Hardwár. The Ganges here divides into many shallow channels, intercepted by islands. The town is of great antiquity, and has borne many names. It was originally known as Kapila or Gupila, from the sage Kapila, who passed his life in religious austerities at the spot still pointed out as Kapilasthána. Hwen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, in the 7th century A.D., visited a city which he calls Mo-yu-lo, and the remains of which still exist at Máyapur, a little to the south of the modern town. He describes the site as some 3½ miles in circumference, enclosing a dense population; and General Cunningham finds that the existing ruins strongly confirm his account. The ruins are thus described in the *Report of the Archæological Survey*, vol. ii. p. 233:—

'These traces extend from the bed of a torrent, which enters the Ganges near the modern temple of Sarovanáth, to the old fort of Rájá Ben, on the bank of the canal, a distance of 7500 feet. The breadth is irregular; but it could not have been more than 3000 feet at the south end, and at the north end, where the Siwálik Hills approach the river, it must have been contracted to 1000 feet. These dimensions give a circuit of 19,000 feet, or rather more than 3½ miles. Within these limits there are the ruins of an old fort, 750 feet square, attributed to Rájá Ben, and several lofty mounds covered with broken bricks, of which the largest and most conspicuous is immediately above the canal bridge. There are also three old temples dedicated to Náráyana-silá, to Máya Deví, and to Bhairava. The celebrated *ghát*, called the Pairi or "feet" *ghát*, is altogether outside these limits, being upwards of 2000 feet to the north-east of the Sarovanáth temple. The antiquity of the place is undoubted, not only from the extensive foundations of large bricks which are everywhere visible, and the numerous fragments of ancient sculpture accumulated about the temples, but from the great variety of the old coins, similar to those of Sugh, which are found here every year. The temple of Náráyana-silá, or Náráyana-bali, is made of bricks 9½ inches square and 2½ inches thick, and is plastered on the outside. Collected around it are numerous squared stones and broken sculptures. One of the stones has belonged to the deeply-carved, cusped roof of an old temple. Amongst the broken sculptures I was able to identify only one small figure of Buddha, the ascetic, surrounded by smaller figures of ascetic attendants. The temple of Máya Deví is

built entirely of stone; and, from the remains of an inscription over the entrance doorway, I think it may be as old as the 10th or 11th century. The principal statue, which is called Máya Deví, is a three-headed and four-armed female in the act of killing a prostrate figure. In one of the hands I recognised the *chakra*, or discus; in another there was an object like a human head; and in a third hand the *trisúl*. This is certainly not the figure of Máya Deví, the mother of Buddha, nor is it exactly that of any goddess with which I am acquainted. It corresponds best with the figures of Durga; but if the name assigned to it is correct, the figure must be that of the Puránik Máya Deví, who, according to the Bhagavata, was the "energy of the supreme, and by her, whose name is Máya, the Lord made the universe." But the action of the figure is most decidedly opposed to this identification; and I am therefore inclined to assign the statue to Durgá, the consort of Siva, to whom Vishnu gave his discus, and Siva his trident. This attribution is the more probable as there is, close beside it, a squatting male figure with eight arms, which can only be Siva; and on the outside of the temple there is a Lingam, and a statue of the bull Nandi. There is also a fragment of a large female statue, which may possibly have been Máya Deví, but it was too imperfect for recognition. As there was nothing about the temple to give any clue to its identification, I can only conjecture that the original figure of Máya Deví must have been destroyed by the Muhammadans, and that the vacant temple was afterwards occupied by the votaries of Siva. Outside the modern temple of Sarovanáth, I found a statue of Buddha seated in abstraction under the Bodhi or sacred fig-tree, and accompanied by two standing and two flying figures. On the pedestal there was a wheel, with a lion on each side as supporters; and as the figure was apparently naked, I concluded that it represents Adí Buddha, the first of the twenty-four Jain hierarchs.'

The name of Hardwár, or Hari-dwára, literally 'Vishnu's Gate,' seems to be of comparatively modern origin, as both Abu Ríhán and Rashid-ud-dín mention only Gangá-dwára, or the 'Ganges Gorge' (literally, gate). Its earlier names, Máyura, or Máyapur, connect it with Sivaite worship, rather than with any form of Vishnu. Abul Fazl, in the time of Akbar, speaks of Máya, vulgarly Hari-dwára on the Ganges, being sacred ground for 36 miles in length. In the next reign, Tom Coryat visited the place, and described it as 'Hari-dwára, the capital of Siva.' A dispute exists to this day between the followers of Siva and Vishnu, as to which of these deities gave birth to the Ganges. The *Vishnu Purána* is cited by both, as it ascribes the Ganges to Vishnu, and the Alaknanda, or eastern branch of the Ganges, to Siva. The Sivaites argue that the proper name is *Hara-dwára*, 'Siva's Gate;' the Vishnuites maintain that it is *Hari-dwará*, 'Vishnu's Gate.' The

truth is that it was a scene of sacred rites long before either Sivaism or Vishnuism developed in their present forms. As the spot where the Ganges issues forth on its fertilizing career, Hardwár obtained the veneration of each of the great religions of India, and preserves the memorials alike of Buddhism, Sivaism, and Vishnuism, and of rites perhaps earlier than any of them.

'The present town,' says the Government official account of Sahāranpur District, 'and the ruined village of Máyapur, both lie on the right bank of the Ganges, at the southern base of the Siwálik range, through which, by a gorge or natural breach, the river enters the plains. On the left is the Chandi Pahár, on the top of which is a temple connected with those in Hardwár itself. The river occupies the whole gorge, the width of which at its narrowest point is about 1 mile. Owing to its proximity to the hills and the great declivity to its bed, the Ganges here divides into several channels, intercepted by large islands, many of which are placed beyond the reach of high-flood water. One of these channels commences about $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles above Hardwár, and flows by Hardwár, Máyapur, and Kankhal, rejoining the parent river a little below the last town. It is from a spot on this branch, between Máyapur and Kankhal, that the head-waters of the Ganges Canal are taken. Hardwár was visited in 1796 by Hardwicke, who calls it a small place situated at the base of the hills. Raper describes it in 1808 as very inconsiderable, "having only one street, about 15 feet in breadth and a furlong and a half in length. Most of the houses have the upper part of brick and the lower part of stone, which is of good quality." The street is now fully three-quarters of a mile long.'

Modern Ceremonies.—The great object of attraction at the present day is the Hari-ke-charan or bathing *ghât*, with the adjoining temple of Gangá-dwára. The *charan*, or foot-mark of Vishnu, is imprinted on a stone let into the upper wall of the *ghât*, and forms an object of special reverence. Each pilgrim struggles to be the first to plunge into the pool, after the propitious moment has arrived; and stringent police regulations are required to prevent the crowd trampling one another to death, and drowning each other under the sacred water. In 1819, 430 persons, including some Sepoys on guard, lost their lives by crushing in this manner; after which accident, Government constructed the present enlarged *ghát* of sixty steps, 100 feet in width. The great assemblage of pilgrims takes place on the first day of the month of Baisákh, the commencement of the Hindu solar year (March–April), and the anniversary of the day upon which the Ganges first appeared upon earth. Every twelfth year, the planet Jupiter being then in Aquarius, a feast of peculiar sanctity occurs, known as a *Kumbh-mela*, which is attended by an enormous concourse of people. The ordinary number of pilgrims at the annual fair amounts to 100,000, and at the

Kumbh-mela to 300,000. The number of pilgrims attending the last *Kumbh-mela* in 1882 was estimated at 270,000. The total was formerly given in much larger figures. Hardwicke, an eye-witness, estimated the pilgrims to the *Kumbh-mela* at 2½ millions. Raper, who was present at the following *Kumbh-mela* in 1808, placed them at over two millions. Unless these estimates were greatly above the truth, even for the whole shifting crowds which came and went throughout the festival, the popularity of the shrine has greatly decreased during the present century. Riots and bloody fights were of common occurrence amid the excited throng. In 1760, on the last day of bathing (10th April), the rival mobs of the Gosáin and Bairági sects had a long-continued battle, in which some 1800 are said to have perished. In 1795, the Sikh pilgrims slew 500 of the Gosáins. Tamerlane plundered and massacred a great concourse of pilgrims at Hardwár shortly after he had seized Delhi. From Hardwár the pilgrims often proceed to visit the Sivaite shrine of Kedarnáth and the Vaishnav temple of Badrináth, in British Garhwál, worshipping on their way at the various *prayágs* or sacred confluences of two rivers. Large numbers come from the Punjab and distant parts of Rájputána.

The Hardwár meeting also possesses considerable mercantile importance, being one of the principal horse-fairs in Upper India, where Government purchases large numbers of remounts for the Native Cavalry. Commodities of all kinds, Indian or European, find a ready sale, and the trade in the staple food-grains forms a lucrative traffic. Great attention has been paid to the police and sanitary arrangements of these fairs, which have now been regulated as effectually as the large concourse permits. The Hardwár Municipal Union manages the funds derived from leasing the sites for booths, and has lately expended large sums upon *ghâts*, *saráis*, roads, latrines, and other works of public utility.

The Ganges Canal draws its supplies of water from a branch channel of the river, close to Hardwár, between Máyapur and Kankhal. Third-class police station, post-office. Telegraph office at Máyapur, in connection with the canal works at Rúrki (Roorkee). A considerable through trade from Dehra Dún passes through the town. The local business is almost entirely confined to supplying the wants of pilgrims. Hardwár Municipal Union includes the town itself and the neighbouring villages of Jawálapur and Kankhal. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £2133; from taxes, £1694, or 1s. 2⅜d. per head of population (28,106) within municipal limits. Height above sea-level, 1024 feet. [For further information, see General Cunningham's *Report of the Archæological Survey*, vol. ii.; also *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. ii., Sahâranpur District, Government Press, Allahâbâd, 1873.]

acre. The Sub-division in 1883 contained 1 criminal court, with 5 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 58 men, besides 428 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Hariá (*Haraia*).—Town in *parganá* Amorha, Basti District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Hariá *tahsíl*, situated on the

Hargám.—*Parganá* of Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District; on the east by Lahárpur; on the south by Khairábád, and on the west by Sítápur *parganás*. First constituted a *parganá* by Akbar's finance minister, Todar Mall, and included within the Khairábád *chaklá*. In 1712, a body of Gaur Rájputs took forcible possession of Hargám town and the surrounding country; and their descendants still hold five-sixths of the soil. Area, 66 square miles, of which 43 are cultivated. The incidence of the revised Government land-tax is at the rate of 2s. 9⅞d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 2d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 9⅜d. per acre of total area. Population (1872) 23,861; (1881) 24,516, residing in 3992 houses. Bi-weekly markets at Hargám, Kutikalám, and Mumtazpur.

Hargám.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Hargám *tahsíl*, situated about half-way on the high road between Kheri and Sítápur towns. Lat. 27° 45′ N., long. 80° 47′ E. Although now in a state of decay, Hargám was once apparently a very extensive city. Local tradition tells how it was founded by the mythical Harish Chandrá of the Solar dynasty; how it fell away after his death; how, many years afterwards, it was restored by a Rájá named Bairát; how it again decayed; and how it was once more rebuilt by the great Vikramáditya in the 2nd century A.D. In 1712, a tribe of Gaur Rájputs from the west attacked and took it, and it has since gradually sunk to its present condition. Population (1881), including the surrounding villages of Sarái, Pithu, Tarpatpur, Jalálipur, and Rámpur Baraura, 2946, residing in 462 houses. The village of Hargám proper contains only 328 inhabitants and 53 occupied houses. School, registration office. At a sacred tank known as the Surajkund, a biennial religious trading fair is held in the months of Kártik and Jaishthá, that in the former month being attended by about 40,000 persons. One mosque and four Hindu temples. Bi-weekly market. Military camping ground just outside the town.

Harha.—*Parganá* of *tahsíl* Unao, Unao District, Oudh; triangular in shape, with the apex to the south. The Lodh family who held the *parganá* were ousted by a Káyasth named Chaturbhuj Dás, an agent of Rájá Jai Chánd of Kanauj, who thus acquired the estate, and founded 75 new villages. His family in turn has decayed, and the present representative holds only two villages. The present chief of Mauranwán acquired the town of Harha by mortgage from this Káyasth family. The *parganá* is the largest in Unao, covering an area of

comprising a strip of country extending 10 miles eastward from the Swát river, and stretching from the hills on the north to the Kábul river on the south. Lat. 34° 3′ to 34° 25′ N., long. 71° 37′ to 71° 57′ E. Head-quarters at Chársáda. Derives its name from its chief component villages, which probably occupy the site of the ancient Penkelaotis or Pushkalavati. General Cunningham, however, believes the modern term to be a corruption of Hastinagara, the city of Hasti, the Astes of Arrian. (*See* PESHAWAR DISTRICT and CHARSADA.) Area, 303 square miles. Population (1881) 69,914, namely, males 38,127, and females 31,787; persons per square mile, 2·31. The inhabitants are Muham-

places, and there are valuable quarries of potstone. The higher mountains are of granitic formation. The soil of the valleys is a rich, red, alluvial loam; the 'black cotton-soil' only occurs in a few isolated patches.

History.—The early history of this region is of the usual legendary character. The first authentic evidence is supplied by the inscriptions and statues of the Jains, but it would be rash to assign even an approximate date to these memorials. Even at the present day the Jains are numerously represented in the village of Srávan-belgola, which they are locally reported to have colonized during the reign of Chandragupta in the 3rd century B.C. On the hill of Indrabetta in this neighbourhood are many ancient temples, and inscriptions cut in the rock with characters a foot long. On the adjoining peak of Chandrabetta is the colossal statue of Gomateswara, 60 feet high, which is conjectured to have been formed by cutting away the solid rock all round.

Real history does not begin until the epoch of the Ballála dynasty, which lasted from the 10th to the 14th century A.D. Their capital was at Dwarávati-pura, the ruins of which are still to be seen scattered around the village of HALEBID in this District. The earlier kings professed the Jain faith, but the finest temples were erected to Siva by the later monarchs of the line. While the Ballálas were at the zenith of their power, the whole of Southern India acknowledged their sway. In 1311, a Muhammadan army under Kafur, the general of Alá-ud-dín, sacked Dwarávati-pura, and returned to Delhi laden with spoil. The Ballála prince escaped to Tondanúr (now in the adjoining District of Mysore), and the dynasty continued to exist for sixty years more. The monarchs of Vijayanagar succeeded to their place as lords paramount over all the territory south of the Kistna river; but the present District of Hassan ceased to be the seat of a metropolis, and became a remote Province, ruled over in a semi-independent fashion either by viceroys or by local *pálegárs*. The Province was known as Balam, a name properly applicable only to the Malnád, and the capital was at Aigur. The eastern part of the District was under the rule of

separate chiefs. During the troubled period that followed the fall of the Vijayanagar Empire, this remote tract plays no prominent part in history. The greater part of it was subjected in the 17th century by the conquering Rájás of Mysore, and later, the whole acknowledged the despotic rule of Haidar Alí. But Hassan District appears to have been never thoroughly incorporated into the Mysore State. After the death of Tipú in 1799, one of the local *pálegárs*, or hereditary barons, named Venkatádri, was bold enough to assert his independence against the British. He was finally captured and hanged. For fifty years, from 1832 to 1881, Hassan with the rest of Mysore was under direct British administration. In the latter year the sovereignty of the State of Mysore was transferred to the young Mahárájá on his attaining his majority.

Population.—A *khána-sumári*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853–54 returned a total of 469,254 persons. The regular Census of 1871 returned the number at 668,417, showing an increase of over 42 per cent. in the interval of eighteen years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 535,806, showing a decrease of 132,611 persons, or 24·7 per cent. in the ten years since 1871. This decrease is due to the famine which decimated Southern India in 1876–78. The area of the District in 1881 was 1879 square miles; number of towns and villages, 3024; houses, 132,741, of which 32,373 were unoccupied; average density of population per square mile, 285; villages per square mile, 1·61; houses per square mile, 70·64; persons per village, 177; persons per occupied house, 5·34. Classified according to sex, there are 261,416 males and 274,390 females; proportion of males to females being therefore nearly equal. There were, under 15 years of age, 105,540 boys and 97,606 girls; total, 203,146, or 37·9 per cent. of the District population. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 522,214, or 97·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 11,155, or 2·08 per cent.; Christians, 2393, or ·44 per cent.; 25 Sikhs; and 19 'others.' As regards caste, the Bráhmans number 19,045, of whom the majority belong to the Smarta sect. Of the other Hindu castes, the Rájputs number 1268; the Komátis and Nagartaru, or trading classes, 1542; the Lingáyats, a large commercial class, 67,973; and the Vakkaligars, agriculturists, 186,055; other agricultural castes, 97,229. The artisans number 47,516; wandering tribes, 1436; out-castes, 91,523; and 'others,' 7153. The Muhammadans almost entirely belong to the class of Deccani Musalmáns of the Sunní sect. According to the Census of 1881, Sunnís numbered 10,465; Shiás, 245; Wahábís, 233; other Musalmáns, 212. The Jains (numbering 1474 in 1881) are mostly to be found in the *táluk* of Belur, and nearly every individual among them is engaged in the manufacture of brass-ware. Their former predominance in this region,

and their ancient inscriptions and sculptures in the neighbourhood of Srávan-belgola, have been already alluded to. Out of the total of 2393 Christians, 59 are Europeans, mostly employed on the coffee estates, and 36 are Eurasians, leaving 2298 for native Christians. According to another principle of division, there are 321 Protestants and 2072 Roman Catholics.

The only place in the District containing more than 5000 inhabitants is HASSAN town, 5950. Of the 3024 towns and villages in Hassan District in 1881, 2198 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 709 from two to five hundred, 88 from five hundred to one thousand, 20 from one to two thousand, 6 from two to three thousand, 2 from three to five thousand, and 1 from five to ten thousand. The Census distributes the adult male population according to occupation into the following six main groups—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description, and the learned professions, 8779; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 524; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 2916; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 139,630; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 11,890; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 97,677.

The most interesting tract in the District is the Manjarábád *táluk*, included within the Malnád or hill country, where the cultivation of coffee has recently assumed great importance. This *táluk* consists of 4 *náds*, sub-divided into 28 *mandes*. Each *mande* has a *patel* or headman of its own, who lives in a fortified enclosure, and still preserves a certain feudal superiority over the villagers. The village of Sathalli is the centre of an agricultural Christian community, founded by the Abbe Dubois. The total number of this community was 699 in 1881; they are known as 'caste Christians'—that is to say, along with the tenets of Christianity, they retain all the social observances of their Hindu ancestors. At Melukot there is a celebrated temple of Vishnu, under his appellation of Krishna, which is richly endowed, and supports a numerous colony of Srí Vaishnav Bráhmans. The Jain sculptures on the twin hills of Chandrabetta and Indrabetta have been referred to above.

Several religious festivals and fairs combined are held in the District. The chief places of resort are Melukot, Chunchingiri, Belur, Somanhalli, Hoskote, and Tirupati. At these places during certain periods from four to ten thousand people assemble.

Agriculture.—The staple cultivation of the District consists of dry and wet crops in almost equal proportions. In the Malnád or hill country, rice of an inferior quality furnishes the greater portion of the food supply; the hill slopes are cut into terraces and watered from

tanks at the valley heads. In the Maidán or low country, the cultivation of *ragi* (Cynosurus corocanus) predominates; but excellent rice is grown in the river valleys, wherever the fields can be irrigated by means of artificial channels drawn off from the rivers by anicuts or dams. The statistics of irrigation show a total of 4888 tanks in the District, and 226 miles of canals, yielding an annual revenue of £48,483. The other crops include tobacco, sugar-cane, the cocoa-nut and areca-nut palms, plantain trees, and chillies. Coffee cultivation is one of the staple industries of the District, and thrives particularly well in the rich red loam of the forests which clothe the Malnád Hills. This cultivation is said to have been introduced from Mecca by Bába Budan in the sixteenth century, and had begun to attract attention when the British assumed the administration of Mysore State. The first coffee plantation was opened by a European in the Manjarábád *táluk* in 1843; and the cultivation has proved so successful in this tract that at the present time nearly every native has a few coffee-trees planted at the back of his house. There are now altogether 191 coffee estates owned by Europeans, and 14,454 native holdings, yielding an annual revenue to Government of £2793. The cardamom plant, which grows wild on the Western Gháts, has recently been brought under systematic cultivation.

The agricultural stock of the District consists of 2824 carts and 85,147 ploughs. The following agricultural statistics for 1881–82 show that out of a total area of 1879 square miles, only 720 are under cultivation, and 224 more are returned as cultivable. The area under rice is 59,308 acres; wheat, 160; other food-grains, 302,627; oil-seeds, 32,801; coffee, 47,295; vegetables, 1052; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 17,254; tobacco, 2490; sugar-cane, 5222; mulberry, 218. The annual out-turn of food-grains is valued at £231,000. The cattle of the country are generally of a diminutive size; but in certain parts a fine breed is to be seen, descended from the famous *amrit mahál*, or royal breed of Haidar Alí, which is still maintained by the Mysore Government. In the low country, the well-to-do *rayats* find it worth their while to breed cattle for the hills, where, however, the rank pasturage and the humidity of the climate annually cause a great mortality. A large number of draught cattle are also required for the through trade. The total live stock of the District (1881–82) consists of 391,408 cows and bullocks, 248 horses, 2293 ponies, 3161 donkeys, 266,307 sheep and goats, and 7871 pigs.

Manufactures, etc.—Hassan District is too exclusively a rural region to possess any important industries. Cotton cloth and country blankets or *kamblís* are woven in almost every village to meet the local demand. The winding of raw silk, and the making of such silk articles as purses and tassels, are confined to the Musalmán section of the community.

The Jains, on the other hand, have the monopoly of the manufacture of brass-ware. The braziers work upon a system of advances, and the value of their out-turn for 1881–82 is estimated at £6312, much of which is exported into the neighbouring Districts of Mysore and Kanara. Bags for packing grain are made from gunny, and also from the bark of a tree.

The exports from Hassan are large, consisting chiefly of food-grains and coffee; but the trade is chiefly in the hands of traders from other Districts. About 3377 tons of *ragí*, 7764 tons of rice, and 1202 tons of other grains were exported in 1881–82. The imports received in return are European piece-goods, hardware of all sorts, and spices. The largest weekly market is held at Alúr, where considerable quantities of rice change hands. Other trading centres are Yesalurpet, Kenchammana, Hoskot, and Chennapatna. Until 1837, the District was without bridges or roads deserving the name; palanquins and pack bullocks were the sole means of carriage. The District is now brought into communication by good roads with large towns in the adjacent Districts of Bangalore, Mysore, Bellary, and Mangalore. There are no railways in the District. The length of imperial roads is 163 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £2907; of District roads, 430 miles, costing £3661. Three passes lead through the Western Gháts towards Mangalore on the Malabár coast, along one of which a good road has been constructed.

Administration.—In 1881–82, the total revenue of Hassan District, excluding education and public works, amounted to £117,805. The chief items were—land revenue, £96,077; *ábkári*, or excise, £6307; *mohatarfa*, or assessed taxes, £3138; forests, £4072. The District is sub-divided into 9 *táluks*, or fiscal divisions, with 68 *hoblis*, or minor fiscal units. In 1881–82, the total number of proprietors or coparceners was 103,529. During 1880 the average daily population of the District jail was 49·7, and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 7·1; total, 56·8, of whom 2·4 were women. The figures show 1 person in jail to every 9461 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 48 officers and 437 men, and the town police, 1 officer and 13 men; total, 499 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £5571. There is thus 1 policeman to every 3·8 square miles of area, or to every 1073 persons of the population; the cost being £2, 19s. 3d. per square mile, and 2½d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 243, attended by 4379 pupils. In addition, there were 147 unaided schools, with 1657 pupils. In 1880–81, the Report on Public Instruction in Mysore State returns a total of only 75 Government aided and inspected schools with an attendance of 2745 pupils. No returns are available showing the present number of unaided schools; but the Census

Report of 1881 gives a total of 6256 boys and 275 girls as under instruction, besides 16,328 males and 221 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Hassan does not materially differ from that of the neighbouring District of Bangalore. The average mean temperature is about 76° F., the thermometer seldom rising above 88°, or sinking below 64°. In the summer months of March and April, the heat is sensibly modified by the sea-breeze blowing from the west coast. From its proximity to the *gháts*, and partly also owing to the moisture engendered by the forests and marshes, the Malnád has a temperature several degrees lower than the plains. The average rainfall at Hassan town, calculated over a period of eleven years ending 1881, is 25·23 inches; but in the Malnád, as much as 100 inches sometimes falls in the year. In this latter tract, the south-west monsoon prevails continuously from May to August; whereas in the plains, the north-east monsoon of October brings the larger proportion of the rainfall. The Malnád is greatly dreaded for the malarious fever which prevails after the early rains. It has been observed that Europeans ultimately become better acclimatized to its attacks than natives. The vital statistics of the District are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that in 1880, out of a total of 9627 deaths reported, 7114 were assigned to fevers, 643 to bowel complaints, 157 to small-pox, and 59 to snake-bite or wild beasts. In 1880, the dispensary at Hassan town was attended by 77 in-patients, of whom 8 died; the out-patients at Hassan hospital and at the dispensary at Sakleshpur numbered 10,640.

Hassan.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State. Area, 374 square miles. Population, 100,523 in 1872, and 84,460 in 1881, namely, 41,238 males and 43,222 females. In 1881, Hindus numbered 81,423; Muhammadans, 2109; and Christians, 928. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £17,046, or 5s. 5d. per cultivated acre. Expenditure (1882–83) on internal *táluk* administration, £2202; criminal court in the *táluk*, 1; police stations (*thánás*), 8; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 80. The *táluk* supplies cattle and carts for the carrying trade of the coffee districts.

Hassan.—Chief town of Hassan District, Mysore State; 114 miles west of Bangalore. Lat. 13° 0′ 16″ N., long. 76° 8′ 8″ E. Population (1871) 6305; (1881) 5950, namely, 4558 Hindus, 1067 Muhammadans, and 325 Christians. The original town was at the neighbouring village of Chennapatna, founded in the 10th century, and removed to the present site 200 years later. Head-quarters of the Hassan *táluk*.

Hassangadi.—*See* HOSANGADI.

Hassanúr.—*Ghát* or pass in the Balirangam Hills, Coimbatore

District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 35′ N., long. 77° 10′ E. Good road for wheeled traffic from Coimbatore *viâ* Satyamangalam to Mysore. The *ghát* has an easy gradient for 8 miles to a height of 3000 feet to Dimmam. From Dimmam it is 4 miles to Hassanúr and 6 miles to the Mysore frontier. The road is much used, and meets the Gazzalhatti tract at Hardanhalli, in Mysore.

Hastinapur.—Ruined city in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the bank of the Burh Gangá or former bed of the Ganges, 22 miles north-east of Meerut. Lat. 29° 9′ N., long. 78° 3′ E. Hastinapur formed the capital of the great Pándava kingdom, celebrated in the *Mahábhárata*, and probably one of the earliest Aryan settlements outside the Punjab. Few traces of the ancient city now remain; but tradition points to a group of shapeless mounds as the residence of the children of the moon, the Lunar princes of the house of Bhárata, whose deeds are commemorated in the great national epic. After the conclusion of the famous war which forms the central episode of that poem, Hastinapur remained for some time the metropolis of the descendants of Parikshit, but the town was finally swept away by a flood of the Ganges, and the capital was transferred to Kausámbi. The modern hamlet of Hastinapur contained in 1881 a population of only 28 persons, 27 being Hindus and 1 Muhammadan.

Hastings, Fort.—Fortified hill in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 25′ N., long. 80° 5′ E.; distant from Lohughát, 3½ miles west. Elevation above sea-level, 6240 feet.

Hasuá.—Town and police outpost station in Gayá District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the river Tiliyá on the Gayá and Nawádá road, 9 miles from Nawádá and 27 miles from Gayá town. Lat. 24° 29′ 43″ N., long. 85° 27′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 4203 Hindus and 816 Muhammadans—total, 5019, namely, 2424 males and 2595 females; municipal income in 1882, £120; expenditure, £110; rate of municipal taxation, 5½d. per head of town population.

Háta.—*Tahsíl* in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the south of the District, and comprising the *parganás* of Sháhjahánpur and Silhat, and 6 *tappás* of *parganá* Havili. Area, 575 square miles, or 367,867 acres. Population (1872) 287,230; (1881) 371,284, namely, males 185,782, and females 185,502, showing a total increase of 84,054, or 29·2 per cent., in the nine years since 1872. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881: Hindus, 340,439; Muhammadans, 30,841; and 'others,' 4. Out of 908 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 716 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £28,211. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, with 2 police stations (*thánás*). Strength of regular police, 35 men, besides 158 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Háta.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, and

head-quarters of Háta *tahsíl;* situated on the unmetalled road to Kasia, 28 miles east of Gorakhpur town. The town is small and unimportant, except as the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, which was formed in 1872. Besides the usual courts and offices, the town contains a first-class police station, post-office, school, and dispensary.

Hatampur.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Population (1881) 2677.

Hathatiá.—River in Goálpárá District, Assam.—*See* HARIPANI.

Háth].zárí.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánd*) in Chittagong District, Bengal; situated 12 miles north of Chittagong town on the road to Rámgarh. Lat. 22° 30′ 5″ N., long. 91° 50′ 45″ E. The village is separated from Kumiriá by the Sitákund range of hills, and attempts are being made to open out a pass between the two places by a cutting through the range. Hátházárí contains a thriving market.

Háthíbárí.—State forest ('1st class Reserve') in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; comprising about 15 square miles along the Jonk river, 20 miles from Seorináráin. Contains some fine teak, and a promising young plantation of the same timber.

Háthpor.—Curious tunnel on the northern face of Rámgarh Hill, Sargujá State, Chutiá Nágpur. Thus described by Colonel Dalton:—

'Two of the spurs of the great rock, themselves rocky and precipitous, forming buttresses on the northern face, instead of gently blending with the plain like the others, have their bases truncated, and then united by a vast natural wall of sandstone rock, 150 yards thick and 100 to 150 yards in height. A semicircular or rather horse-shoe-shaped nook is thus formed, which, from the height and precipitous nature of the sandstone rock enclosing it, would be almost inaccessible, had not nature provided an entrance by a natural tunnel through the subtending wall. This is called the Háthpur. The waters collected from springs in the nook form a little stream that flows out through the tunnel. At its mouth it is about 20 feet in height by 30 in breadth; but at the inner extremity of its course of 150 yards it is not more than 8 feet by 12. A man on horseback could ride through it. The sand of the stream in the tunnel was impressed with old and recent footprints of a whole family of tigers, who had taken up their abode in this pleasant and secure retreat; but we did not find them at home. The horse-shoe embraces an acre or two of ground, well wooded and undulating, so that a considerable body of men could conveniently encamp there.'

On the southern side of the recess rises a sandstone cliff, which forms part of the main body of the hill, and contains two good-sized caves. The larger of these is 44 feet long, 10 feet wide, and about 6 feet high. It was, no doubt, of natural origin, but the walls have

been finished throughout with cutting tools, raised benches have been cut out of the solid rock, and recesses partially secluded by buttresses on either side of the entrance. There is no attempt at ornamentation, and nothing to indicate that the cave was intended for a place of worship. The smaller cave is about 40 yards distant from the larger, and at the same elevation. The interior shows little or no sign of artificial excavation. Both caves contain roughly-cut inscriptions, which have been pronounced by Rájendralála Mitra to be 'in the old Pálí character, but not of the time of Asoka.' If, as Colonel Dalton suggests, the recesses in the larger caves were designed as private apartments for females, it is more than probable that the place was used as a hiding-place for the women and treasure of the ruling family during Maráthá inroads. Local tradition, however, remembers nothing so modern, and describes the caves as the residence of Ráma during the fourteen years of forest exile which preceded his conquest of Ceylon. Here it was that Sítá was carried off by the demon Rávana, and two deep grooves in the rock in front of the larger cave are said to be portions of the enchanted circle which Ráma drew around her for her protection. The name Háthpor may be a corruption of *Háthi-pola*, or the 'Elephant Gate;' but it has also been suggested that the name implies that the tunnel was made by hand. It certainly bears no signs of human workmanship, and another explanation attributes it to the trickling of water through crevices in the sandstone.

Háthras (*Hattras*).—South-western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of an alluvial upland, traversed throughout by the East Indian Railway main line, and comprising the *parganás* of Hathrás and Mursán. Area, 291 square miles, of which 246 are cultivated. Population (1872) 207,330; (1881) 199,481, namely, males 107,109, and females 92,372. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 181,520; Muhammadans, 17,104; Jains, 839; and 'others,' 18. Of the 362 villages comprising the *tahsíl* in 1881, 250 contained less than 500 inhabitants. Land revenue, £41,852, according to the last Settlement Report; total Government revenue, including cesses, £46,037; rental paid by cultivators, £71,271; incidence of Government revenue, 4s. 11¾d. per acre. The *tahsíl* contains 1 *munsif's* (civil) and 1 *tahsíldár's* (criminal) court, and is divided into the four police circles of Háthras, Mursán, Sásni, and Salímpur. This tract is remarkable for the high standard of cultivation. Of the total area, 83 per cent. is cultivable; and of this, 95 per cent. is under cultivation, while irrigation reaches 93 per cent. of the cultivable area. Roughly speaking, one-half of the *tahsíl* is sub-divided among cultivating village communities, and one-half is held by large proprietors.

Háthras (*Hattras*).—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Pro-

inces, and head-quarters of Háthras *tahsíl.* Situated on the Alígarh nd Agra road, 21 miles south of the former, and 29 miles north of he latter town. Lat. 27° 35′ 31″ N., long. 78° 6′ 9″ E. Háthras is a vell-built and prosperous trading centre, with numerous brick and stone houses. Held at the end of last century by the Ját Thákur, Dáya Rám, whose fort still stands in ruins at the east end of the town. After the British annexation in 1803, the Thákur gave repeated proofs of an insubordinate spirit; and, in 1817, the Government was compelled to send an expedition against him, under the command of Major-General Marshall. Háthras was then one of the strongest forts in India, the works having been carefully modelled upon those of the adjacent British fortress at Alígarh. After a short siege, terminated by a heavy cannonade, a magazine within the fort blew up, and destroyed half the garrison. Dáya Rám himself made his escape under cover of the night, and the remainder of the native force surrendered at discretion. An old temple in the fort still bears traces of the furious fire which it underwent during the assault. Since it came under direct British rule, Háthras has rapidly risen to commercial importance, and now ranks second to Cawnpur among the trading centres of the Doáb.

Population (1872) 23,589; (1881) 25,656, namely, Hindus, 22,505; Muhammadans, 2915; Jains, 232; Christians, 2; 'others,' 2; area of town site, 256 acres. The general plan of the town is compact, and the houses are built close together. A broad metalled road skirts the entire city where the walls once stood. One wide way passes through the centre of the town from east to west, and two good roads run from north to south, dividing it into six *muhallás* or wards. A municipal hall and school-house stand upon the brink of a new tank; and the town also contains a post-office and Government charitable dispensary. Háthras carries on a large export trade in both coarse and refined sugar. Grain of all sorts, oil-seeds, cotton, and *ghí*, form the other staples of outward trade; while the return items comprise iron, metal vessels, European and native cloth, drugs and spices, and miscellaneous wares. Háthras, in fact, ranks as the great centre of supplies for the Upper Doáb, Rohilkhand, and the neighbouring Punjab Districts. In local industries, the town is noted for the delicacy and excellence of its wood and stone carving. The new line of rail to Muttra, and the broad gauge line connecting the business portion of the town with the East Indian main line, will doubtless still further develop the local trade. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £1337; from taxes, £1303, or 9d. per head of population (34,932) within municipal limits.

Hatiá.—Island and police circle in Noákhálí District, Bengal; situated in the estuary of the Meghná river, and lying between 22° 26′

and 22° 41′ N. lat., and between 90° 59′ and 91° 11′ 30″ E. long. Area, 185 square miles, with 48 villages, and 4176 houses. Population (1881) 40,295, namely, males 22,062, and females 18,233; average density of population, 218 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 831; houses per square mile, 24·19; inmates per house, 9·6. Hindus numbered 8777, and Muhammadans 31,518. The island lies low, and is partially but very insufficiently protected from incursions of the sea by detached lines of embankments. Occasionally, however, at the period of the south-west gales in May and October, storm-waves roll inland sometimes for miles, as in the cyclones of 1st November 1867 and 31st October 1876, completely submerging the island, and spreading death and destruction around. In the last-mentioned cyclone, it is estimated that 30,000 lives were lost in Hatiá, out of a population returned in 1872 at 54,147, or 13,852 less than in 1881.

Hattá.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Bálághát District, Central Provinces. Area, 134 square miles, of which 66 are cultivated; number of villages, 83. Population (1881) 29,058, namely, males 14,301, and females 14,757; average density of population, 217 per square mile. The greater part of the estate consists of a fertile plain between the Sátpura Hills and the Bágh and Waingangá rivers. Most of the uncultivated portion is uncultivable, consisting of rocky hills covered with jungle. Formerly part of the KAMTHA State; confiscated by the Rájá of Nágpur in 1818, who bestowed the chiefship on a Lodhí family.

Hattá.—Village in Bálághát District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Hattá estate; situated on high ground studded with mango trees, 8 miles east of the Waingangá river. Population (1881) 2466, namely, Hindus, 2139; Muhammadans, 254; and aboriginal tribes, 73. The old Gond fort encircles the residence of the *zamíndár*, who, as an honorary magistrate, has done much for the improvement of the village. He maintains a good school and dispensary, has improved the roads, and keeps up a regular conservancy establishment. Close to the entrance to the fort is a remarkably fine *baolí* or well, constructed by a former *zamíndár*.

Hattá.—Northern *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division in Dámoh District, Central Provinces. Area 1007 square miles, with 1 town, 447 villages, and 26,409 houses. Population (1881) 125,060, namely, males 65,165, and females 59,895; average density of population, 124 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 279; houses per square mile, 27·8; persons per house, 4·5. Total adult agricultural population, 37,575, or 28·5 per cent. of the sub-divisional population. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 11 acres per adult agriculturist. Of the total area of 1107 square miles, 282 are held revenue-free, while 725 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 349 square miles are under cultivation, 194 square

miles are cultivable, and 182 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £12,865, or 1s. 1⅞d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rental paid by the cultivators, £19,306, or 2s. 4¾d. per cultivated acre. Total revenue of the *tahsíl* in 1883, £26,561. It contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 4 police stations (*thánás*) and 11 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 131 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 364.

Hattá.—Town in Dámoh District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Hattá *tahsíl;* situated on the right bank of the Sonár river, 24 miles north of Dámoh town, in lat. 24° 8′ N., long. 79° 39′ E. Population (1881) 6325, namely, Hindus, 5645; Muhammadans, 472; Kabírpanthís, 4; and Jains, 204. Municipal income in 1881, £401, of which £288 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¼d. per head of the population; municipal expenditure, £534. Hattá has always been a place of some importance. The Gonds had a fort near the north gate of the town, of which, however, scarcely a trace now remains. The Bundelás built a stronger fort in the 17th century, which the Maráthás afterwards enlarged. On the cession of the District to the British in 1818, the head-quarters were first established at Hattá, but removed to Dámoh in 1835. The town has a *tahsílí* or sub-collector's office, police station, dispensary, *sarái*, and Government school-house. At the market, held twice a week, a brisk trade is done in red cloth, which is exported to Bundelkhand and elsewhere.

Hattras. — *Tahsíl* and town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* HATHRAS.

Hatwá.—Village in Sáran District, Behar, Bengal. Lat. 26° 21′ 36″ N., long. 84° 20′ 21″ E. The residence of the Mahárájá of Hatwá, a wealthy Hindu landholder, who owns 1339 out of the 5631 villages in Sháhábád, besides 46 villages in neighbouring Districts. His estate comprises an area of 390,015 local *bíghás*, and yields him a gross rental of £102,240, including cesses, of which £27,765 is paid to Government as land revenue and cesses. The estate has been held by the present family from a period anterior to the Muhammadan conquest o the Province, and the succession is said to have been uninterrupted during a line of 102 Rájás.

Haung-tharaw (*Houng-tharaw*). — River in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The Haung-tharaw rises in Siamese territory east of the Province, and flows through the range of mountains forming the boundary between the two countries. Crossing the frontier in lat. 15° 55′ N., and long. 99° E., it rushes with great velocity between high and scarped banks amongst mountains clothed with dense forest, which gradually gives place to feathery bamboos and elephant grass. Near Gyaing, where the Haung-tharaw joins the

Hlaing-bwe, patches of cultivation appear on the banks, and the country gradually slopes. The Haung-tharaw is navigable by native boats for some distance beyond Mitan, 80 miles from Maulmain.

Haung-tharaw. — Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The country is mountainous, and densely wooded with valuable timber. The chief river is the HAUNG-THARAW, forming the western boundary of the township. Cultivation is carried on principally on the *taungya* or nomadic system. Large numbers of cattle are annually imported from Siam. The route used is that from Myawadi to Kaw-ka-rut, the head-quarters of the township. In 1881 the population was 19,650, chiefly Karin; the land revenue amounted to £918, and the capitation tax yielded £1150. The township contains 77 villages, and is divided into 5 revenue circles. In 1881–82 the cultivated area was 8839 acres, mostly under rice. The agricultural stock (1881–82) comprised 6473 buffaloes, 7108 bullocks, bulls, and cows, 77 goats, 581 pigs, 696 ploughs, 239 carts, and 46 boats.

Hauper.—*Tahsíl* and town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* HAPUR.

Haveli.—Sub-division of Púna (Poona) District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 813 square miles; contains, with the Kirkee cantonment and Púna city and cantonment, 236 villages and 3 towns. Population (1881) 287,062, namely, 147,327 males and 139,735 females. Hindus numbered 252,631; Muhammadans, 20,477; 'others,' 13,954. Land revenue (1882), £18,822. The Sub-division contains 3 criminal courts and 2 police stations (*thánás*); number of regular police, 81 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 279.

Háveri.—Town and municipality in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated 58 miles south-east of Dhárwár town, on the road from Púna (Poona) to Bangalore. Lat. 14° 47′ 30″ N., long. 75° 29′ E. Population (1872) 5465; (1881) 5652, namely, 4728 Hindus, 824 Muhammadans, and 100 Jains. Háveri has a considerable trade in cotton and other commodities, especially in cardamoms brought from Kanara to be washed in a small lime-impregnated well. Sub-judge's court. Municipal income (1880–81), £396; expenditure, £393; incidence of municipal taxation per head of population, 1s. 5d. The municipal income in 1882–83 was £140; incidence per head of municipal population, 6d.

Havilí.—Western *parganá* of Múl *tahsíl*, Chánda District, Central Provinces; containing 102 villages, but no large town except CHANDA. Area, 448 square miles. Hill and jungle on the north and east occupy more than half the *parganá*. The Virái intersects it from north to south, and the Andhárí flows along its eastern boundary. Towards the west the soil is black loam.

Havili Oudh (*Haweli*).—*Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh. Bounded on the north and east by the Gogra river; on the south by the Madha river and *parganás* Pachhimráth and Amsin; and on the west by *parganá* Mangalsi. Area, 127 square miles, or 81,198 acres; area under crops, 46,400 acres; under groves, 5280; capable of cultivation but not under tillage, 5836 acres. Government land revenue, £8977; average incidence, 3s. 1½d. per acre of arable land. A densely-populated *parganá*, the Census of 1881 returning the inhabitants at 139,610, or an average of 1099 per square mile. The chief landed families are the Bashisht Bráhmans, Surajbansi Rájputs, Gargbansi Rájputs, Bais Rájputs, Upadhia Bráhmans, Bhadarsa Sayyids, and the Kurmís of Manjadubanspur. The estates of the last-named family were confiscated owing to the rebellion of the Rájá in 1857. AJODHYA and FAIZABAD towns are situated in this *parganá*.

Háwalbágh.—Village in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; picturesquely situated on the left bank of the Kosila, 5 miles north of Almorá. Lat. 29° 38′ 25″ N., long. 79° 39′ 5″ E. Elevation above sea-level, 3889 feet. Háwalbágh was formerly the cantonment of the Provincial battalion, but was abandoned on the constitution of that force as one of the Gurkhá corps. Two tea plantations now occupy the site of the cantonment, and also the rifle range of the regiment stationed at Almorá.

fine patches of cultivation are met with in all parts, and the scenery is generally pleasing and often extremely picturesque. The central tracts, notably the northern portion of the lower plateau, exhibit a continuous expanse of undulating country, rich in soil and devoid of hills, where much valuable rice land has been obtained after laborious construction, and where the cultivated uplands, generally studded with *mahuá* trees, or groves of mango, have given many parts of the District the 'park-like appearance' which has been so frequently remarked.

The District forms part of the chain of high land—sometimes a range of hills, sometimes a cultivated plateau—which extends across the continent of India, south of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river on the west, and south of the Son (Soane) river on the east. This chain has nearly reached its eastern extremity in Hazáribágh District; the rivers here take an easterly course, and the general level of the country begins to fall. The high central plateau has a well-defined face on all sides except towards the west. In this direction it becomes narrow, and gradually descends till the final slope can hardly be traced among the other undulations of the country. Near the western limit, the connection of the plateau with the great central range referred to above is readily traced. The principal peaks of the plateau are Barágái or Marang Buru (3445 feet above the sea), Jilingá (3057 feet), Chendwár (2816 feet), and Aswa (2463 feet). Detached hills are Lugu (3203 feet),

the river Kunhár forces its way through the central ravine to join the Jehlam (Jhelum) at Pattan. The mountain chains which bound the Khágán valley sweep southward into the broader portion of the District, still maintaining a general parallel direction, and send off spurs on every side, which sub-divide the country into numerous minor dales. Ranges of the same system cut off the valleys of Agror (Ughi), Mánsehra, Abbottábád, and Khánpur, drained respectively by the Kunhár, the Sirhan, the Dor, and the Haroh, all of which are tributaries of the Indus. The intervening ridges crowd closely upon one another, leaving mere deeply-scored ravines for the excavating streams; but open and level patches occasionally occur, and gradually increase in width as the channels trend southward. At last, upon the confines of Ráwal Pindi, the hills subside, and the valleys open out towards the Punjab plain. The whole amount of level country throughout the District has been calculated at from 250 to 300 square miles. The Jehlam (Jhelum) forms the eastern border of the District for 20 miles, flowing in a narrow rocky bed, through which it seethes and rushes in a boisterous torrent.

The scenery of Hazára everywhere presents the most picturesque and charming variety. To the north, tower the distant peaks of the snow-clad ranges; midway, the central mountains rise clothed to their rounded summits with pines and other forest trees, while

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to the Census of 1881, 1,104,742. The administrative head-quarters are at HAZARIBAGH town.

Physical Aspects.—The physical formation of Hazáribágh exhibits three distinct features:—(1) A high central plateau extends from the western boundary of the District, occupying a central position in the western section of it; this plateau measures about 40 miles in length from east to west and 15 miles from north to south, and the height of the head-quarters station, Hazáribágh (2000 feet), may be taken as its average elevation; the surface is undulating and cultivated, and many prosperous villages are dotted over this tract: (2) A lower and more extensive plateau, with a general elevation of 1300 feet, occupies the northern and eastern portions of the District; to the north, the land is well cultivated, and hardly a trace exists of rock or jungle; to the east, the country has a much more varied character, the elevation becomes lower, and the character of a plateau is gradually lost: (3) The central valley of the Dámodar river, with the country which is watered by its numerous feeders, occupies the entire southern section of the District; the chief characteristics of this tract are extensive jungle and scattered villages, but exceptions to this general description are found in the well-cultivated Karanpurá valley, and in the rich rice-fields of *parganás* Paláni, Changarhá, and Golá. Indeed, although the characteristic features of Hazáribágh are rock and hill and wide-spreading jungle, fine patches of cultivation are met with in all parts, and the scenery is generally pleasing and often extremely picturesque. The central tracts, notably the northern portion of the lower plateau, exhibit a continuous expanse of undulating country, rich in soil and devoid of hills, where much valuable rice land has been obtained after laborious construction, and where the cultivated uplands, generally studded with *mahuá* trees, or groves of mango, have given many parts of the District the 'park-like appearance' which has been so frequently remarked.

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Máhudi (2437 feet); and, in the east of the District, on the boundary of Mánbhúm, the well-known PARASNATH HILL, 4479 feet above the sea, which was for a few years (1864–68) used as a military sanitarium. The building on the top of the hill, formerly the officers' quarters, is now used as a *dák* bungalow for travellers.

The most important river of Hazáribágh is the DAMODAR. The District may be said to contain a section of the valley of this river about 90 miles in length. When the Dámodar enters Hazáribágh on the south-west, it has already run 25 miles of its course through Lohárdagá. For a short distance it forms the boundary between the two Districts, and then flows in a generally eastern direction, until it enters Mánbhúm. Its chief feeders in this portion of its course are the Garhi, Haharo, Naikári, Maramarhá, Bherá, Kunar, Khanjo, and Jamuniá. The Dámodar, with its tributaries, drains in this District an area of 2480 square miles; it is everywhere fordable during the dry season. The only other important river of Hazáribágh is the BARAKHAR, which drains an area of 2050 square miles. Although the face of the country is to a large extent covered with jungle, there are no forests containing timber of appreciable commercial value. *Sál* (Shorea robusta) grows abundantly, but is not allowed to attain any height, the young trees being used for house-posts, rafters, masts, etc. The use of the saw is unknown, and it would therefore be useless to allow the trees to grow beyond a size at which the wood can be cut and fashioned by the axe. The forests of the District yield little revenue to Government, but they afford means of subsistence to a considerable number of the poorer classes of the people during a portion of the year. Amongst the fruits and roots thus eaten are the *mahuá*, *ber*, *bar*, *pípal*, *singárá*, *chehur*, roots of various species of Dioscorea, and many kinds of leaves. A 'reserved forest' has been established in the Kodarma Government estate since 1879, covering an area of 36 square miles. The uncultivated high lands in the south and south-west of the District contain fine stretches of grazing ground for cattle, and during the cold weather large herds are driven in for pasture from the neighbouring District of Gayá, where grazing land is scarce. There are no fewer than five groups of mineral springs in Hazáribágh District, all of which are looked upon as sacred by the Hindus, and are largely resorted to for the cure of skin diseases. The jungle in the less cultivated portions of the District give shelter to tigers, bears, and leopards; and the *soná chitá* or dog-leopard, distinguished by having non-retractile claws, is occasionally seen. Wolves are very common, and wild dogs hunt in packs on Párasnáth Hill. Several varieties of deer are found in the jungles, and bison are sometimes met with. Amongst the game-birds, which are very plentiful, are jungle-fowl, pea-fowl, partridge, duck, teal and quail, snipe, ortolans, plovers, etc.

History.—Local history begins in the middle of the 18th century, when one Mukund Singh was Rájá of the old estate of Rámgarh (which included the present District of Hazáribágh) and the recognised chief of the country, while his relative, Tej Singh, was at the head of the local army. They claimed descent from two Rájput brothers, immigrants from Bundelkhand. The former obtained the *zamíndárí* of Rámgarh from the Mahárájá of Chutiá Nágpur; but, in 1771, Tej Singh went to assert his claim to the estate before Captain Camac at Patná. He returned with a European force under Lieutenant Goddard; Mukund Singh fled after a mere show of resistance, and the Rámgarh estate was made over to Tej Singh subject to a tribute of £4000 a year. It does not appear, however, that Lieutenant Goddard took formal possession of the territory thus won, nor did his expedition extend to the north-western portion of the District known as *parganá* Kharakdiha. Six years earlier (1765), Mod Náráyan Deo, the old Hindu Rájá of Kharakdiha, chief of the *ghátwáls* or guardians of the passes, being driven from his estate by the Musalmán *ámil* or revenue agent, Kámdár Khán, had taken refuge with Tej Singh at Rámgarh, and received a grant of two villages by way of maintenance. Kámdár Khán's rule in Kharakdiha was followed by that of Ikbál Alí Khán, who was expelled in 1774 for tyranny and mismanagement, by a British force under Captain James Brown. The exiled Rájá of Kharakdiha, who had exerted his influence on the British side, was rewarded with a grant of the maintenance lands of the *ráj*. Possibly he might have been completely reinstated in his former position, but in the confusion of Muhammadan misrule, the *ghátwáls* had grown too strong to return to their old allegiance, and demanded and obtained separate settlements. In the *sanads* granted to them by Captain Brown, they are recognised as petty feudal chiefs, holding their lands subject to responsibility for crime committed on their estates. They were bound to produce criminals, and to refund stolen property; they were liable to removal for misconduct; and they undertook to maintain a body of police, and to keep the roads in repair. Before 1780, the pacification of the *ghátwáls* was complete, and Captain Brown's military administration had come to an end. Rámgarh and Kharakdiha then formed part of a British District named Rámgarh, administered by a civilian, who held the offices of Judge, Magistrate, and Collector; while a contingent of Native infantry, known as the Rámgarh Battalion, was stationed at Hazáribágh under the command of a European officer. This District of Rámgarh occupied an area nearly three times as great as that of Hazáribágh at present, stretching up on the north-west to Sherghati in Gayá, and taking in on the east *parganá* Chakái of Monghyr, and the *zamíndárí ráj* of Pánchet; while on the south-west and south-

Palámau was regularly included in the District, and Chutiá Nágpur owed a loose allegiance as a tributary estate administered by its own chief.

From 1780 to 1833, the District was governed in general accord with the ordinary Regulations; but in the latter year, in consequence of the great Kol insurrection of 1831-32 (for an account of which see LOHARDAGA District), the administrative system was entirely changed. Rámgarh and the Jungle Maháls with the estate of Dhalbhúm, till then included in Midnapur, were exempted from the operation of the Regulations, and every branch of government within these tracts was vested in an officer appointed by the Supreme Government, styled the Agent to the Governor-General. The *parganás* of Kharakdiha, Kendi, and Kundá, with the large estate of Rámgarh consisting of 16 *parganás*, which compose the present area of the District, became part of the South-Western Frontier Agency, and were formed into a District under the name of Hazáribágh. In 1854, the designation of the Province was changed from South-Western Frontier Agency to Chutiá Nágpur; and it has been administered since that date as a Non-Regulation Province under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, the title of the chief executive officer being at the same time changed from Governor-General's Agent to Commissioner. The revenue, civil, and magisterial jurisdictions of Hazáribágh are now conterminous.

Population. — Several early attempts were made to ascertain the population of Hazáribágh. In 1837 it was estimated at 320,000, but it is not known on what data this calculation was based. The Survey Department, in 1858-63, returned the population at 716,065, showing an average density of 101 persons to the square mile; and a later estimate gave an average density of 106 to the square mile. The first regular Census was taken in 1872. It disclosed a total population of 771,875 persons, inhabiting 6703 villages or townships and 150,493 houses. In 1881 the population was returned at 1,104,742, or an increase of 332,867, or 43·12 per cent., over the results of 1872. Most of this large increase, however, is more apparent than real, being due to defective enumeration in 1872. That enumeration is admitted to have been only approximate, and to have partaken rather of the character of a survey of the population than a regular census. The general results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 7021 square miles; number of towns and villages, 7833; houses, 193,481, of which 185,280 are occupied and 8201 unoccupied. Total population, 1,104,742, namely, males 544,903, and females 559,839; average density of population, 157·3 per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·12; persons per village, 141; houses per square mile, 27·6; persons per house, 6.

The ethnical division of the people is returned as follows:—Non-

Asiatics (almost entirely British), 161; mixed races, 45; Asiatics (all natives of India), 1,104,436. Belonging to non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, there are 73,282; Hindus and semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribes, 852,103; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 4022; unspecified Hindus, 2860; Muhammadans, 106,097; and Christians, 552. Among the non-Hindu aboriginal tribes of the District, the most numerous are—the Santáls, of whom there are 56,598; the Kols, 8815; the remaining 7869 being returned as 'others.' *Parganás* Chái and Chámpa of Hazáribágh are supposed to have been one of the earliest settlements of the Santáls, although their true home is now the adjoining District of the Santál Parganás. An account of the wanderings of this tribe and of the customs and habits of its members will be found in the article on the SANTAL PARGANAS, as also in Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal*, and in the *Annals of Rural Bengal.* In Colonel Dalton's work will also be found a very interesting account of the Kols or Mundás; a brief description will also be given of this tribe in its alphabetical sequence. The curious aboriginal tribe of Bírhors, found in Hazáribágh and Lohárdagá, is deserving of notice. They live in the jungles of the hill-sides in water-tight huts made of branches and leaves. They have hardly any cultivation, and never touch a plough. The men spend their time in snaring hares and monkeys, and also trade in various jungle products. They worship female deities and devils, and it is supposed that they at one time practised cannibalism.

Among semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous castes are —Bhuiyás, 92,849, and Kharwárs, 36,893, who occupy the humblest positions; Chamárs, preparers of hides and workers in leather, numbering 42,574; Dosádhs, 24,827; Ghátwáls, 38,441; and Bhogtás, labourers and exorcisers of demons, but not returned separately in the Census Report. Mention has already been made in the historical section of this article of the Ghátwáls of Rámgarh. They were originally guardians of the hill passes, and are Bhuiyás by descent; but the official title has now become a caste appellation. The wealthier Ghátwáls are considerable landholders in the north-east of Hazáribágh, and claim to be *zamíndárs* under the Permanent Settlement of 1793. Of agricultural and pastoral castes, the most numerous are the Kurmís (62,761); the Koerís (42,602); and the Goálás, cowherds and milkmen (129,445), the most numerous caste in the District; of trading castes, the Baniyás (27,277); of artisan castes, the Telís or oilmen (42,319); and of castes employed chiefly in domestic service, the Napits or barbers (23,671); and Kahárs, field labourers, domestic servants, etc. (33,419). The higher Hindu castes are—Bráhmans, numbering 28,422; Rájputs and Bandáwats (37,404); Babháns (29,540); and Káyasths (9232). The most respected clans of Rájputs are the Panwár or Ujjainí, from whom were drawn the Bhojpuria

Sepoys of our Native army; and the Nágbánsí, who are peculiar to Chutiá Nágpur, and are acknowledged as Rájputs of pure blood. The Bandáwats are a cultivating caste, who wear the sacred thread, and claim to be Rájputs.

The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number 924,811, or 83·7 per cent. of the total population. Of Muhammadans there are 106,097, or 9·6 per cent., namely, Sunnís, 97,029; Shiás, 641; and 'unspecified,' 8427; and of Christians, 552, of whom 161 were Europeans or Australians, 45 Eurasians, and 327 natives. There is also a considerable Jain population in Hazáribágh, estimated at 5000 in number. They are not, however, returned separately in the Census Report, and are apparently included in the general Hindu population. The Jains may be divided into two classes—the secular and the religious. The secular Jains, known as Sráwaks, are confined to the towns of Hazáribágh and Chatrá. Most of them are well-to-do merchants, and occupy a high social position. The religious Jains live at the foot of Párasnáth Hill, and have charge of the temples in the village of Madhuban, where pilgrims halt before ascending the holy hill. Both classes are well-to-do in the world.

Town and Rural Population.—The population of the District is almost entirely rural, there being only three towns containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants, namely, HAZARIBAGH (population in 1881), 15,306; Chatrá, 11,900; and Ichak, 7346. Of the 7833 towns and villages in 1881, no less than 6319 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 1201 from two to five hundred; 263 from five hundred to a thousand; 43 from one to two thousand; 3 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to five thousand; and 3 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The only place of special interest in the District is PARASNATH HILL, a celebrated place of pilgrimage, which is annually visited by large numbers of Jain worshippers. Minor places of pilgrimage are Kulha Hill and Kháprawa village.

Material Condition of the People.—The demand for labour in connection with the construction of the railways, together with the extensive operations of the Public Works Department, has caused a considerable rise in the price of wages and produce of late years, which has considerably ameliorated the condition of the people. In former years, a labourer or petty agriculturist could barely manage to supply himself with the bare necessaries of life in an ordinary year, while in bad seasons or on other occasions of distress, his misery was very great. Now, however, after defraying all his expenses, he can manage to save something out of his earnings or the produce of his fields, which he carefully hoards up for occasions of sickness and seasons of scarcity; or, as is oftener the case, to spend on wedding ceremonies and other festive occasions.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six main classes:—Class (1) Professional, including all Government servants and the learned professions, 5280; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 14,703; (3) commercial, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 10,353; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 178,991; (5) manufacturing and artisan, 32,709; (6) indefinite and non-productive, comprising general labourers and male children, 302,867.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of the District, and three principal kinds are grown—*borá* or *gorá*, *lahuhan*, and *jarhan*. *Borá* or early rice is sown broadcast after the first fall of rain in June, and reaped about the end of August; it is confined to the southern portion of the District. *Lahuhan* or autumn rice is sown in June, and reaped in September; it is either transplanted or sown broadcast. The winter rice crop (*jarhan*) is also sown in June, transplanted in July or August, and reaped in October and November. From this last crop are derived the finer varieties of rice, the coarser kinds, such as are used by the poor, being usually grown in the *lahuhan* crop. These crops are subdivided into 47 principal varieties. Rice is grown in the swampy ground between the long undulating ridges of which the surface of the District is composed, and on the lower slopes of these ridges. The soil is, in the first instance, brought under cultivation by cutting level terraces out of the hill-side, a small bank to hold water being left round the edge of each plot. The hill-sides thus present the appearance of a series of steps, varying from 1 to 5 feet in height. When the slopes are too steep for terracing, or the soil too strong for cultivation, the bed of the stream is banked up and made into one long narrow rice-field. The rice-fields thus constructed are divided into four classes, according to the height of the land and its capacity for remaining moist until the planting-out season. The rich alluvial land, which lies lowest in the depressions between the ridges, is called *gairá;* the rent for this varies from 6s. 8d. to 8s. an acre, and the average yield is 15 cwt. per acre. *Singá* land lies higher up the slope; rent, 5s. 4d. per acre; average produce, 12 cwt. an acre. *Bád* is situated above *singá*, and is the highest land on which rice can be grown at a profit without artificial irrigation; the rent varies from 2s. 8d. to 3s. 4d. per acre, and the produce is estimated at nearly 7 cwt. per acre. *Gaurhá* is rather high rice land, which would, from its position, be classed as *singá*, but which catches the fertilizing drainage of a village, and is therefore assessed as *gairá;* rent and average produce, the same as in the case of *gairá*. A second crop is not grown on rice lands. Among the other crops of Hazáribágh District are wheat of several kinds, barley, Indian corn, the usual pulses and green crops of Bengal, a little jute, flax, aloe, sugar-cane, opium, cotton, *pán*, etc. Out of an area (as ascer-

tained by the Topographical Survey in 1870–73) of 7020 square miles, 2585 square miles are returned as under cultivation, and 4435 square miles as uncultivated.

Wages and prices have risen considerably since 1855, the earliest year for which any record of prices exists. In that year, the wages of an agricultural day labourer were a little more than 1½d. a day; now he earns rather more than 2¼d. Bricklayers' wages have risen from 1⅞d. to 3¾d. or 4½d. a day; and carpenters who were formerly paid 3d. now get 4½d., or even 6d. a day. Prices of food-grains and all kinds of agricultural produce have risen proportionately. In 1855, the price of common rice was 2s. 8d. per cwt.; of best rice, 4s. 9d.; and of wheat, 6s. 10d. per cwt. In 1882, the prices were—for common rice, 5s. 9d.; and for wheat, 7s. 8d. per cwt. During the famine of 1866, prices rose to 13s. 8d. per cwt. for common rice, and 19s. 1d. per cwt. for best rice. In the rural parts of the District, the rise and fall of prices is indicated by variations in the size of the *pailá* or measure holding about a *ser* weight of grain. Rice is sold at the uniform rate of 1 pice (⅜d.) per *pailá*; but as the price rises, the size of the *pailá* diminishes.

Kamiás or serf-cultivators, who bind themselves to manual service in consideration of a lump sum of money, or until they discharge an existing personal debt, are numerous in Hazáribágh, and other Districts of Chutiá Nágpur. The *kamiá* is fed and clothed by his master, and his children are married for him, the amount thus advanced being added to the sum of the debt. Nominally, he may regain his freedom by paying the amount due; but so far is this from being the case in practice, that the obligation of service is held to extend even to his children, who work on as *kamiás* after their father's death. The *kamiá* system seems to have arisen naturally from the peculiar economic conditions of the District. Hazáribágh is even now in that early stage of development, when the general proposition that land is limited in quantity has not had time to make itself felt. Land is still a drug; and the other requisites of production, labour, and capital, are proportionately far more important. The District Records of forty years ago show that the status of a *kamiá* was at that date more rigidly defined than it is at the present day. The *kamiás*, then as now mostly of the Bhuiyá caste, executed a formal bond (*saunknáma*), the terms of which were of three degrees of stringency. Under the first and most severe, the *kamiá* bound himself and his descendants to serve in perpetuity. His children were born slaves of the estate, and were married at the proprietor's expense. The second class contracted to serve for the term of their own lives; and the third, who were called *sánwaks*, only until the sum borrowed should be repaid. The two former classes were treated as part of the estate of their owner, and were transferred by sale

or mortgage like other property. Maltreatment of a *kamiá* by his master did not discharge the obligation; but such cases are said to have been rare. In the event of a *kamiá* absconding, his owner was entitled to sue on the bond for possession of his person. Such proceedings were not uncommon, and it was thus that the British Courts were enabled to modify the original system. A claim for possession of a *kamiá* was only admitted, if he had himself executed the *saunk-náma* on which action was brought, and had done so when of full age. All claims to minors or females were summarily disallowed; and maltreatment was held to void the obligation. Latterly, however, the practice of suing on a *saunk-náma* for possession of the person of a *kamiá* has entirely disappeared. Bonds are still drawn up, but the condition that the obligee will work out his debt is frequently omitted altogether, and the document is only used to coerce the *kamiá* with the threat of a legal process.

Kamiás are employed in every description of agricultural labour, from levelling a terraced rice-field out of the hill-side to reaping and storing away the rice crop. They are invariably paid in kind, being given their food day by day at the ordinary meal times. The quantity of food given varies in different localities; but the general practice appears to be, that besides a *lukmá* or double handful of parched rice or *láwá* in the morning, a male *kamiá* receives during the day about one *ser* and a half of cooked food, or four *sers* of paddy or any grain that requires preparation. Women are paid in the same manner, but get a smaller amount of food. During the three months of Paush, Mágh, and Phálgun (15th December—15th March), *kamiás* receive no pay at all, as the work of cultivation is suspended. At the end of the season, however, when the crop is gathered in, a lump payment of grain is given them, the amount of which is settled by custom. A woman who marries a *kamiá* does not *ipso facto* forfeit her freedom. She is called *kamiání*, but this is merely a title; she is not expected to work for her husband's master, and if she does so is entitled to be paid. As a rule, she does ordinary household work for the master and is paid in kind. There is, however, one exception to this rule. If the *kamiá's* master paid to the woman's father the customary marriage present on behalf of the *kamiá*, the wife is held to be *kharídá* or purchased, and takes the same status as her husband. The employers of *kamiás* are perfectly aware how essential the bondmen are to their cultivation, and the relations between the parties are friendly. Notwithstanding this, it is continually becoming more common for *kamiás* to run away; and there can be no doubt that greater facilities for emigration, and the enhanced demand for labour on public works, railways, roads, and mines, together with the general though slow advance of education, will gradually break up the entire system of *kamiá* labour.

Natural Calamities.—Hazáribágh is not subject to the usual calamities which affect most of the Districts of Bengal. Blight and flood are unknown, and a general failure of crops would be impossible unless the local rainfall were to fail entirely. The famine of 1866 did not very seriously affect the District, and the great body of cultivators, though a good deal pressed, were never in real danger of starvation. The prices of rice in 1866 have been given above. A two years' deficiency in the rice crop followed by rainless cold weather might be taken as a warning of distress; and if, further, the early June rain fell short, famine might be expected. In the event of such a calamity occurring, it is doubtful whether the means of communication would be sufficient to meet the emergencies of the case.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Hazáribágh is concentrated at Chatrá, the great central market at which the country produce of Lohárdagá District and the Tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur is exchanged for English cloth, salt, tobacco, household utensils, etc. Two smaller markets are held at Tandawá and Mírzáganj villages; and annual fairs are held at Chatrá and Hutru, at which large numbers of cattle are sold. No accurate information exists as to the value of the exports and imports at the present day. An approximate return was made in 1863, according to which the exports were estimated at £215,735, and the imports at £329,420. The principal articles of export were lac (£43,200), metal cooking utensils (£42,000), *ghí* (£22,000), iron (£17,500), and cattle (£12,000); the chief imports—rice (£100,000), salt (£47,500), cattle (£30,500), and tobacco (£22,000). Local trade is carried on by means of weekly markets, and there are very few village shopkeepers. There are about 735 miles of road in Hazáribágh, of which 564 miles are in charge of the Road Cess Department. The eastern portion of the District is traversed by a branch line from the East Indian Railway, 20 miles long—15 miles being used for the conveyance of passengers, and the remainder exclusively for the carriage of coal. The stations are Maheshmunda and Girídí; there are also coal sidings at Karharbári and Srírámpur.

Minerals.—Six coal-fields are known to exist in Hazáribágh District—namely, KARHARBARI, KARANPURA, BOKARO, RAMGARH, ITKHURI, and CHOPE, all of which see separately. The most important of these is Karharbári, which, it has been estimated, is capable of supplying 250,000 tons a year for 300 years. The coal varies in quality in different parts of the field, the percentage of ash in some specimens being only 4·2 and 4·8, while in others it is as high as 26·5, 34·0, and 39·2. Iron is smelted at many places in the District, and tin is found in Loranga, on the south bank of the Barákhar river. At Báraganda, a village 8 miles west of Loranga, extensive copper mines were formerly

worked. It is not known when and by whom these workings were undertaken, nor why they were abandoned. An unsuccessful attempt was made to reopen the mines in 1852, and arrangements for a further attempt are now (1883) in progress. Mica is found at several places in Kharakdiha *parganá;* and antimony mines were worked by Europeans at the end of last century for more than thirteen years at Sídpur, 12 or 14 miles from Chatrá. They were abandoned owing to a disagreement among the partners.

Tea. — In 1882, there were six tea plantations containing mature plants—at SITAGARHA, JHUMRA, MAHUDI, PARASNATH, PUNDRI, and UDARWA. The approximate yield of fine tea on the Sítágarha plantation in 1873 was 98 lbs. an acre, and in 1874, 140 lbs. per acre; on the Máhudí estate in 1872, the approximate yield per acre was 80 lbs. The Párasnáth plantation occupies the most promising site for tea cultivation in the District, consisting of 14 square miles of land lying on the north face of the hill, at an elevation of between 2000 and 3000 feet. In 1882, the total area under mature plant in these six gardens was 846 acres, yielding an approximate out-turn of 93,510 lbs. of tea, the average yield of mature plants being 110·5 lbs. per acre.

Administration. — Previously to 1835, Hazáribágh, together with Chutiá Nágpur, Palámau, and Pánchet, constituted, as has already been explained, the District of Rámgarh, and no separate returns are available before that date. In 1835 the revenue of Hazáribágh was £8622; in 1850 it had risen to £10,941; in 1870 to £32,841 (of which, however, £986 was derived from the income-tax, since discontinued); and in 1882–83 to £43,780. The land-tax has increased from £4871 in 1835 to £11,790 in 1882–83. The number of separate estates in the District was 86 in 1835, 140 in 1850, 244 in 1870, and 284 in 1882–83; so that the average land revenue paid by each estate was, in 1835, £57; in 1850, £40; in 1870, £45; and in 1882–83, £41. A peculiar feature of the revenue administration of the District is the exemption of estates from the ordinary process of sale for arrears of revenue. The operation of Regulations xiv. of 1793 and v. of 1812 was suspended for Hazáribágh in 1833, and the *dastak* system of levying arrears was substituted. When an estate falls into arrears, payment is demanded by a written document specifying details; and failing payment, the immovable property of the defaulter is attached, and may be sold. In 1850, the number of magisterial courts in the District was 5, and of civil and revenue courts, 7; in 1882, there were 9 of the former and 4 of the latter. For police purposes, the District is divided into 16 police circles. In 1882, the regular, municipal, and railway police force numbered 540 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £9183. There was also a rural police of 5856 men, maintained by the *zamíndárs* and villagers at an estimated total cost in money or lands of £11,123.

The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in that year of 6396 officers and men, or 1 man to every 1·09 square miles or to every 173 of the population; estimated total cost, £20,306, equal to a charge of £3, 3s. 6d. per square mile, or 4½d. per head of the population. *Dakáití* or gang-robbery is said to be common in the District, and the number of cases of housebreaking is very great. There are 3 jails in the District, a central and a District jail at Hazáribágh, and a subsidiary jail at Pachamba; average daily prison population in 1882, 397·64, of whom 18·2 were females.

Education has hitherto made little way in Hazáribágh, progress being prevented by the utter indifference of all classes of society. Until 1865 there was no Government school at all; and in 1870–71, the number of Government and aided schools was 8, with 403 pupils. In 1871–72, the number of such schools was 54, with 1121 pupils; in 1872–73, 86, with 2183 pupils; and in 1882–83, 250, with 6234 pupils.

The District is divided into the 2 Sub-divisions of Hazáribágh and Girídí, and 47 *parganás* or fiscal divisions. The only municipalities are the towns of Hazáribágh, Chatrá, and Ichak.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Hazáribágh is much cooler and more pleasant than that of Lower Bengal during the months of June to September. The highest maximum temperature in 1881 was 107° F.; minimum, 44·0°; mean, 74·8°. The average yearly rainfall is 48·56 inches. The climate is reckoned healthy, but rheumatism, fever, and dysentery are not uncommon; cholera is rare. The returns of sickness and mortality among the British troops stationed at Hazáribágh in 1860–69 contrast favourably with the averages of other stations for those years. The troops were, however, withdrawn from Hazáribágh in 1874, owing to an outbreak of enteric fever which caused great mortality. There are 3 charitable dispensaries in the District. [For further information regarding Hazáribágh, see Mr. Ricketts' *Report on the District;* the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 1–227, by W. W. Hunter (Trübner & Co., London), 1877; *Special Report on the Land Tenures of Hazáribágh*, by Colonel H. Boddam, Deputy-Commissioner; *Census Report of Bengal* for 1880–81; *Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Hazáribágh.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Hazáribágh District, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Area, 4575 square miles, with 4280 villages or towns, and 114,649 houses. Population (1881) 672,238, namely, males 328,876, and females 343,362. Hindus numbered 568,581; Muhammadans, 60,776; Christians, 380; Santáls, 28,555; Kols, 6166; other aboriginal tribes, 7780. Average density of population, 147 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·94; persons per village, 157; houses per square mile, 26·27; persons per house, 5·86.

Hemtábád.—Village and head-quarters of a police station (*thána*) in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Kulik river, Hunterganj, Chatrá, and Simoria. In 1883 it contained 3 civil and 7 magisterial courts, a regular police force 414 strong, besides 2047 village watchmen.

Hazáribágh.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Hazáribágh District, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; picturesquely situated on the high central plateau of the District, at an elevation of 2000 feet above sea-level, and in the midst of a group of conical hills. Lat. 23° 59′ 21″ N., long. 85° 24′ 32″ E. The town is little more than a cluster of hamlets, with intervening cultivation, which sprung up round the former military *bázár*. Hazáribágh was the military head-quarters of the District since about 1780 until very recently, and has been the seat of civil administration since 1834. Before that year, the civil head-quarters were alternately at Shergháti and Chatrá. The cantonment lies south-east of the town. The last military force stationed here was the second battalion 22nd Regiment; but owing to an outbreak of enteric fever in 1874, which resulted in numerous deaths, the troops were withdrawn, with the exception of a small detachment, which was chiefly designed to guard against a possible outbreak of the prisoners in the European penitentiary situated here. Subsequently, on the abolition of the European penitentiary, the European troops were entirely withdrawn, and their place supplied by two companies of a Madras Native Infantry regiment stationed at Doranda. Population (1872) 11,050; (1881) 15,306, namely, males 7639, and females 7667. In 1881, Hindus numbered 11,001; Muhammadans, 4121; and 'others,' 184. Area of town site, 1465 acres. In 1881–82, the gross municipal income amounted to £807, and the expenditure to £760; average rate of taxation, 10½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Hazratpur.—Village in Dátáganj *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, situated near the right bank of the Aril river. A purely agricultural village, the population being almost entirely Hindus. Third-class police station, and post-office. Market twice a week.

cipitous, and the country is densely wooded. Numerous torrents pour down, and unite in the plains to form large streams. The principal are the Pata-shin, the Ot-po, and the Nangathú, falling into the Irawadi and Bassein. The river Irawadi, which flows from north to south through the District, with a general south-east course, is navigable by steamers at all seasons. The Sanda, the Alún, and the Padaw rise in the Arakan Mountains, and unite to form the Pata-shin, which falls into the Irawadi just below Kyan-kin; their extreme length is 95 miles. The Ka-nyin, or Ot-po, also rises in the Arakan Yomas, flows south-east for 60 miles, and, uniting with the Sinbún at its mouth, falls into the Thambaya-

The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in that year of 6206 officers and men, or 1

Hebbalé. — Village in the Rámaswámikano *hobli*, in Coorg. Population (1881) 1967. School with 25 pupils. Eight miles from Fraserpet, with which it is connected by a good road.

Hebli.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; 7 miles east of Dhárwár town. Lat. 15° 28′ 50″ N., long. 75° 10′ E. Population, presumably, in the absence of Census statistics, under 5000. Hebli is situated on rising ground, with an old dilapidated fort in the centre. A weekly market is held here. The land revenue has been alienated by Government.

Heggadadevankot.—*Táluk* in the south-west of Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 652 square miles, of which 73 are cultivated. Population (1871) 54,829; (1881) 64,039, namely, 63,849 Hindus, 1705 Muhammadans, 356 Jains, and 129 Christians; land revenue (1874–75), exclusive of water rates, £4025, or 1s. 9d. per cultivated acre; revenue (1883), £5616. A large proportion of the area is covered with forest, the haunt of elephants and other wild animals. Gold dust has been found in the jungle streams of the *táluk*, and iron is worked to some extent. Forests cover a total area of 150 square miles. There are two District forests. The soil is fertile, and cultivation is extending. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court; police stations (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 68 men; and village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 222.

Heggadadevankot.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State; head-quarters of Heggadadevankot *táluk*. Lat. 12° 5′ 50″ N., long. 76° 21′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 1204. Of mythical antiquity, and latterly the residence of a local chief. The site of a ruined fort.

Hemavati ('*Golden*,' or *Yenne-hole*). —A tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, which flows from north-west to south-east across Hassan District, Mysore State, for about 120 miles; it forms for a short distance the boundary of Coorg on the north-east of the Yelusavirshime *táluk*, and joins the Káveri at Tippur. In Hindu mythology, the Hemavati appears as the daughter of Daksha and wife of Iswara

Commissioner; *Census Report of Bengal* for 1880–81; *Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

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Hemtábád.—Village and head-quarters of a police station (*thána*) in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Kulik river, 30 miles west of Dinájpur town. Lat. 25° 40′ 40″ N., long. 88° 15′ 50″ E.

Henckellganj.—Village in Khulná District, in the north of the Jessor Sundarbans, Bengal. Lat. 22° 27′ 30″ N., long. 89° 2′ E. Founded in 1782 or 1783 by Mr. Henckell, then Magistrate of the District, as a part of his scheme for the reclamation of the SUNDARBANS. Now only a petty hamlet with an insignificant trade in grain. Its name has become corrupted into 'Hingalganj,' by which it appears in the Survey maps. CHANDKHALI, another mart established by Mr. Henckell at the same time, has prospered greatly, and is now one of the most thriving marts in the Sundarbans.

Henzada.—A District in the Irawadi Division, British Burma, lying between 17° 18′ and 18° 34′ N. lat., and between 94° 53′ and 95° 45′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Prome District; on the east by the Irawadi, except in the extreme south, where it is bounded by the Tharawadi; on the south by Thongwa and Bassein Districts; and on the west by the Arakan Yoma range. Area, 1948 square miles. Population (1881) 318,077 persons. The head-quarters of the District are at HENZADA town, on the right bank of the Irawadi. The present District of Henzada was formed in April 1878. As yet (1885) it contains no railways, but has 171 miles of made roads.

Physical Aspects.—Henzada District stretches in one great plain, lying on the west of the Irawadi, with a small tract of two revenue circles in the south-east of that river. With the exception of the central and south-eastern portions, the whole region has been protected from inundation by extensive embankments, so that by far the greater part of the country is now suitable for rice cultivation. The chief mountains of the District are the Arakan range, of which the highest elevation in Henzada, attained in the latitude of Myanaung, is 4003 feet above sea-level; from this point southward the heights rapidly diminish. In the north the spurs extend down towards the Irawadi, one of them ending at Akauk-taung in a scarped cliff 300 feet high. The slopes are precipitous, and the country is densely wooded. Numerous torrents pour down, and unite in the plains to form large streams. The principal are the Pata-shin, the Ot-po, and the Nangathú, falling into the Irawadi and Bassein. The river Irawadi, which flows from north to south through the District, with a general south-east course, is navigable by steamers at all seasons. The Sanda, the Alún, and the Padaw rise in the Arakan Mountains, and unite to form the Pata-shin, which falls into the Irawadi just below Kyan-kin; their extreme length is 95 miles. The Ka-nyin, or Ot-po, also rises in the Arakan Yomas, flows south-east for 60 miles, and, uniting with the Sinbún at its mouth, falls into the Thambaya-

daing. The Ka-nyin irrigates a highly-cultivated country. The BASSEIN RIVER is a branch of the Irawadi, which it leaves about 9 miles above Henzada; thence it flows south-west, through Bassein District, to the sea.

The forests of Henzada comprise many valuable varieties of timber. Teak is found in the north of the District. The other principal timber-trees are—*pyingado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ), *in* (Dipterocarpus sp. tuberculatus et alatus), furnishing a hard wood used for house-building, bridge piles, boat anchors, railway sleepers, boat-building, etc.; *yindaik* (Dalbergia sp.) and *ban-bwe* (Careya arborea) are used for carts and plough-poles; *sha* (Acacia catechu) furnishes cutch. The inner bark of a species of Bignonia is used for making ropes. Several trees, *e.g.* Bombax pentandra, B. heterophylla, Sterculia, Odina wodier, etc., yield gums, resins, and varnishing oil. The unauthorized felling of a teak tree has always been strictly prohibited. In 1876, a large area west of the Irawadi was set apart as Government forest, in which the felling of several other kinds of trees without licence has been forbidden. Serpentine and soapstone occur together almost everywhere in this District. Petroleum was discovered some years ago near Myan-aung, but the well then sunk has long been abandoned. Gold is found in the bed of the Irawadi, but in too small quantities to render its extraction worth the labour. Coal has been found in the valleys of the Padaw and of the Ot-po, and borings to discover the extent of the field are being carried on at the latter site. The total rainfall of the District in 1881 was 83·17 inches, over 69 of which fell between the months of June and September; the hottest period was in May, the temperature rising to 106° F. in the shade; the highest reading in July was 88°. The District of Henzada contains the Tu and Duya lakes, two of the five principal sheets of water in the Province of Burma.

History.—Henzada District formed a portion of the Talaing kingdom of Pegu, annexed to the Burmese Empire in 1753 by Alaung-paya (Alompra); but it seems to have had at no period an independent existence. Its towns were occasionally attacked and defended, but the people appear to have taken no special part in any of the wars. During the first Burmese war, no resistance was offered to the British army in the District as it is now constituted. After the fall of DONABYU, in the first Burmese war of 1824–26, Sir Archibald Campbell continued his advance up the Irawadi, and was met at Taroh-pmaw by Burmese envoys, with whom he declined entering into negotiations until Prome was reached. Soon after the capture of Rangoon and Bassein during the second Burmese war, Donabyú was again taken; in July 1852, Prome was seized. When the Burmese received intelligence of this event, they immediately abandoned their extensive fortifications at

Akauk-taung, and were discovered crossing the river. An attack was at once made by the British; the works at Akauk-taung and several of the 28 guns which they contained were destroyed, and subsequently the Burmese general in command surrendered. The whole of the delta was not, however, entirely cleared of Burmese troops, and many marauders remained who only awaited a favourable opportunity for opening a guerilla war upon the British and their supporters. No attempts were made to occupy Akauk-taung, and the Burmese took advantage of this to rebuild the stockades; but these were stormed by Captain Loch, R.N., with a small force, and captured without the loss of a single man. To prevent the establishment of any similar posts, a small guard was stationed off Akauk-taung, and directed to patrol the hills regularly. Only a few days after this force was enrolled, Major Gardner (the commander) and a *havildár* were killed, and 6 Sepoys wounded whilst on duty. A detachment was at once despatched from Prome; the enemy were routed, and Akauk-taung was occupied. No further serious disturbances occurred on the right bank of the Irawadi in this neighbourhood. But meanwhile Bassein and the southern part of Henzada had been in a still more unsettled state. The principal leader of revolt in Henzada was one Myat-tun. (*See* DONABYU TOWN.) The defeat of Myat-tun, and the dispersion of his gang, together with the firm but conciliatory policy pursued by the civil officers in charge, relieved the whole country, and no serious disturbances have occurred since.

Population, etc.—In 1881, the population of Henzada District, as at present constituted, was returned at 318,077 persons; and the area at 1948 square miles. The general results of the Census of that year may be thus summarized:—Average density of population, 163 persons per square mile; number of towns and villages, 1231; houses, 58,996, of which 55,499 were occupied and 3497 unoccupied; average number of villages per square mile, ·63; houses per square mile, 30·2; persons per village, 258; persons per occupied house, 5·73. Classified according to sex, there were 159,576 males and 158,501 females; of these there were, under 15 years of age, boys 69,807, girls 45,323; total, 115,130, or 36 per cent. of the whole population. The religious division of the people shows—Buddhists, 311,741; Christians, 4308; Muhammadans, 1192 (mostly Sunnís); Hindus, 703; 'Nat,' or spirit-worshippers, 121; and a few (12) Pársís. Buddhists form 98 per cent. of the population. As the District has been constituted within its present limits only since 1878, no trustworthy comparison, as regards increase or decrease of population, can be made with the statistics of the previous years; but there is no doubt that an increase, not a decrease, has taken place since 1872.

Of the 1231 towns and villages in Henzada District, 714 con-

tained (1881) less than two hundred inhabitants; 424 from two to five hundred; 69 from five hundred to one thousand; 18 from one thousand to two thousand; 1 from two thousand to three thousand; 2 from three thousand to five thousand; 2 from five thousand to ten thousand; and 1 from fifteen thousand to twenty thousand. The Census classifies the adult male population, according to occupation, into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description and the learned professions, 3800; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 140; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 9124; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 57,304; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 13,347; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupations, 75,865.

The number of immigrants from British India into Henzada District during the ten years ending 1876 was 90,797. Under the encouragement of the local government, the numbers may be expected to increase. The number of Burmese in the District in 1876 was greatly in excess of Talaings, the fact being that on the conquest of the lower country by Alaung-payá (Alompra), every effort was made to destroy the Talaing nationality. After the first Burmese war (1824–26), many Talaings who had assisted the British succumbed under the cruelties exercised upon them by the Burmese. It is noted by Sir. A. Phayre that 'scarcely any one of Talaing descent now calls himself anything but a Burmese, so completely has the national spirit been extinguished.' In 1881, the number of Talaings had dwindled to 2950. In the same year, Karengs numbered 38,283; Shans, 1660; Chins, 3652; and Chinese, 445. The Karengs are considered, in contradistinction to the Burmese and Talaings, as 'wild' tribes. They readily adopt the teachings of Christianity. The Kareng language is monosyllabic and tonic, and is said to show traces of connection with the Chinese. There are half a million Karengs in the whole of British Burma. The Chins or Khyins are remarkable for the wholesale manner in which they tatoo their females, so as not to leave an eyelid free from the deforming marks. The Shans are traders and pedlars. They immigrate from Upper Burma, and do not usually remain resident long in one town or District.

The chief occupation of the people of Henzada is rice cultivation, which is spreading, owing to the increased provision of irrigation and embankment works. The number of persons returned by the Census of 1881 as engaged in agriculture is 233,597, or 73 per cent. of the total population; of whom 26,530 males and 10,466 females are land-owners. A large proportion of the agriculturists are women, who do a great deal of what is generally supposed to be exclusively man's work.

The chief towns are:—HENZADA, the head-quarters of the District,

in lat. 17° 58′ N., and long. 95° 32′ E., with a population in 1881 of 16,724: KYAN-GIN, on the Irawadi, just above the mouth of the Pata-shin, in lat. 18° 19′ N., and long. 95° 1′ 50″ E.; it has a considerable export trade in rice; its population in 1881 was 7565, chiefly Burmese: MYAN-AUNG, once the head-quarters of the Pegu Light Infantry, a corps now disbanded; in 1881, the number of inhabitants was 5416: KAN-AUNG, 7 miles below Myan-aung, was founded by Alaung-payá, about 1753; its small population of 3218 persons is mainly composed of Burmese: ZA-LUN, with a court-house of the extra-Assistant Commissioner of Za-lun township; the population in 1881 was 3240.

Agriculture, etc.—Henzada District, situated at the head of the delta of the Irawadi, has always been extensively cultivated with rice, which finds a ready market at Rangoon and Bassein, with which communication is easy by the numerous creeks intersecting the country. About ten years after the British occupied Pegu, systematic efforts were first made to protect the country from periodical inundation. In 1862–63, small embankments were constructed at (1) Kyan-gin, (2) Myan-aung, (3) Kan-aung, (4) Henzada, (5) Anauk-bhet, (6) Tham-bo-ta-ra, (7) Du-ra, (8) Za-lun. The area of land cultivated behind the Kyan-gin section has increased since 1867–68 from 1590 to 2350 acres, and there is now little spare land available here. The Myan-aung embankment was made in sections,—in 1864–65 the first section became protective, and the number of acres cultivated rose from 13,044 in 1863–64 to 14,543 next year. The third and last section was finished in 1869–70; and by 1873–74, the total protected area had increased to 32,504 acres. The Bassein river embankment now protects 519 acres, where before only 427 were cultivated; the Henzada embankment protects 65,750 acres, as compared with 22,468 acres cultivated before the work was constructed. The embankments at present consist of—(1) one extending from above Kyan-gin westward along the Pata-shin; (2) another stretching along the right bank of the Pata-shin to the Irawadi, and down to Lu-daw-su; (3) another flanking the Bassein river to its northern mouth in the Irawadi, and down that river to below Za-lun. The receipts from these works during the year 1882–83 were £46,288; and £8907 was spent on their maintenance. The total outlay on the entire works up to the year 1882–83 was £304,208, the expenditure sanctioned being £315,014. Taking the projects in detail, the sanctioned outlay is thus divided:—the Kyan-gin section, £15,506; the Myan-aung section, £110,228; and the Henzada section, £189,280. The three projects together form the Western Series of the Irawadi Embankments.

Of the 1948 square miles which now constitute the area of the District, 399 are cultivated, 1402·5 are cultivable but waste, and 146·5

uncultivable. The staple crops of the District are rice, sesamum, vegetables, and tobacco. In 1856, there were 126,156 acres under rice, 3854 under garden produce, and 12,007 under miscellaneous crops; total, 142,017 acres. In 1881, when the area was much smaller, there were 233,009 acres of rice land, 14,355 of garden land, and 15,566 acres planted with miscellaneous crops; total area under cultivation, 262,930 acres. The other products are cotton (grown for local use), *pán*, etc. Tobacco is raised principally on sandbanks left dry by the falling of the Irawadi; the cheapness of imported Indian tobacco prevents any extensive cultivation of this plant; area under tobacco, 2078 acres in 1882–83. Under rice in the same year, 240,892 acres; oil-seeds, 2360 acres; vegetables, 4971 acres; chillies, 293 acres; and cotton, 22 acres. The average rent of land during the ten years ending 1881 was about 1 rupee 8 annas (3s.) per acre. For rice lands the cultivator pays 5 rupees (10s.), the average rent for rice land in the whole Province being 7s. The fertility of the soil is great, the average yield of rice being 1600 lbs. per acre. For the whole Province the average yield is 1351 lbs. per acre. Cotton yields 612 lbs., tobacco 1095 lbs., and sesamum 630 lbs. per acre. The price of rice, per *maund* of 80 lbs., during the ten years ending 1881, has varied between Rs. 3. 2 (6s. 3d.) and Rs. 2. 8 (5s.); of cotton, between Rs. 8. 12 (17s. 6d.) and Rs. 4. 14 (9s. 9d.); of tobacco, between Rs. 9. 12 (19s. 6d.) and Rs. 7 (14s.); of sesamum, between Rs. 5. 12 (11s. 6d.) and Rs. 3 (6s.).

Administration.—On the annexation of Pegu (1853), the old Henzada District was called Sarawa, or Thara-waw, and very shortly afterwards was divided into two Districts, called Henzada and Tharawadi. These were subsequently united under the name of Myan-aung, which a few years ago (1878) was changed to Henzada, on the head-quarters being transferred to the town of that name. In 1873, the Thon-ze circle of Rangoon District was added; in 1875, the Donabyú township was taken away; and in 1878 Henzada was constituted anew, the District of Tharawadi being formed from the country east of the Irawadi. Under Burmese rule, the revenue annually remitted from the old District to the Central Government at Ava was £39,127, derived from house family tax, land, fisheries, transit dues, etc. On the British occupation, the transit dues were abolished, and an excise tax imposed. In 1855–56, the total revenue of the District amounted to £49,995, from land, capitation, and salt taxes, timber, excise, etc. In 1864–65, the total revenue had increased to £82,951; in 1881–82, the revenue of the present District was £107,727, of which £48,013 was land revenue. In this last year, the local revenue derived from municipal and town taxes, market stall rent, fines, and 10 per cent. cess, amounted to £12,499. The total area assessed was, in 1881,

262,930 acres, the assessment ranging, on cultivated land, from 14 annas (1s. 9d.) to 3 rupees (6s.), and on cultivable but not cultivated land, 2 annas (3d.). The rate per acre on the total area of surveyed and settled land was $15\frac{1}{2}$ annas, or very nearly 2s.

Henzada now includes the two Sub-divisions of Henzada and Myan-aung; these are divided into 6 townships, each under an extra-Assistant Commissioner; the townships comprise 47 revenue circles. Each township, shortly after the annexation of Pegu, was placed under a Burmese officer called *myo-ok*, who possessed judicial and fiscal power. Immediately under him were the *thugyí*, or revenue circle and police officers, whose areas of jurisdiction varied between 3 and 20 square miles. Subordinate to the *myo-ok* and *thugyí* were the *gaung* or officers appointed over every 100 families. The *gaung* constituted the village constabulary. The Burmese revenue system was to exact a fixed sum annually from the various divisions, and to allow the officials no defined salary, but only the fines on criminals and the fees on the administration of justice. Consequently, as a rule, it was the aim of each official to extort as much as possible from the people without arousing discontent and causing appeals to be made to the Government at Ava. The result of the first Burmese war was to throw these officials loose upon the country. A local regiment, called the Pegu Light Infantry, was raised, consisting of 588 officers and men, with their head-quarters at Myan-aung, now, as already stated, disbanded. In two years, the insurrections subsequent on the war were quelled, and gradually the state of the country improved. The people appeared glad to accept the change of rulers, population increased, and the revenue rose in amount, while its incidence per head fell. In 1861, on the formation of the existing Provincial police, the corps of the Pegu Light Infantry was abolished. In 1881, the police force consisted of 302 men, or 1 policeman to every 1053 inhabitants. The District jail at Henzada is only a lock-up, like that at Myan-aung. During the year 1881–82, an average number of 91 prisoners was confined in Henzada, and 33 in Myan-aung jail. At Henzada the jail expenditure was £781. In Myan-aung the cost of the lock-up was £471.

As early as 1855, schools were established by the American Baptist Mission, and in 1856 a Kareng Normal School was opened in Henzada. The average daily attendance in the Government schools in 1881 was—in Henzada, 42; Myan-aung, 193. The total number on the rolls of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel Mission School was 80, and the average daily attendance 85. In Henzada there is also a school for Burmese girls. The total number of pupils in 1881 was 73, and the average daily attendance 59. In 1876, the Director of Public Instruction reported that in this District indigenous lay education was founded on a permanently sound and steadily broadening

basis. The five Kareng schools in the District had 420 pupils in 1883–84; and of these 99 were girls. In this year, the last for which statistics are available, there were 235 Government and 5 private institutions in the District; number of pupils in the former, 6553; in the latter, 53. Of the 235 Government institutions, 231 are indigenous schools under private management receiving some form of State aid. The number of girls' schools was 58 in 1884; pupils, 678.

The number of dispensaries in Henzada District was 2 in 1882; in-door patients treated, 361; out-door, 7296. Vaccinations (1882) 2696; cost of operations, £95. Henzada and Myan-aung are telegraph stations. The former is the only municipality. [For further information regarding Henzada, see *British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Rangoon, 1879); the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Henzada.—Township in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. It is situated on the right bank of the Irawadi, and extends westwards to the Arakan Yomas. The country is very fertile, and produces much rice; it is now protected from inundation by the Irawadi and Bassein embankments. The township is divided into 12 revenue circles. Population (1876) 73,644; (1881) 87,435; gross revenue in 1881, £25,367. The principal town is HENZADA, the head-quarters of the District.

Henzada.—Municipal town and head-quarters of Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; lies on the right bank of the Irawadi. Lat. 17° 38′ N., long. 95° 32′ E. Population (1876) 15,307; (1881) 16,724, of whom 15,906 are Burmese. Hindus number 392; Muhammadans, 293; Christians, 116; and 'others,' 17. The town contains court-houses, treasury, police station, post and telegraph offices, etc. A line of metre-gauge railway is projected, and the necessary surveys have been made between Henzada and the station of Thongzai on the Prome and Rangoon Railway. The line is to be carried on an elevated trestle work a few feet above the highest flood-levels. In 1881, 4342 patients were treated at the dispensary, of whom 210 were in-door patients; and 5157 in 1882, of whom 251 were in-door. There are three schools in Henzada, a Kareng, a Government town school, and a school for Burmese, established by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. In one school a class for Burmese girls was attended (1882) by 70 pupils. Gross municipal revenue in 1882–83, £7729. Henzada is also the head-quarters of the Irawadi Division.

Herát.—The western Province of Afghánistán, forming a separate Governorship under a high officer appointed by the Amír. Herát consists of the six Districts of Ghorián, Sábzawár, Tarah, Bakwa, Kúrak, and Obeh. The Province formerly included the District of

Farah, which lies half-way between Herát and Kandahár. Herát is bounded on the north by the Thár Viláyat and Fírozkohi country; east by the Táimúnís and Kandahár; south by Lash Jawain and Seistán; and west by Persia and the Hari Rúd. According to Conolly, it contains 446 villages, 8 large canals which feed innumerable smaller ones, 123 watercourses, 2288 ploughs; and it produces 98,000 *kharwars* of wheat, or 49,000,000 lbs. A full description of Herát lies beyond the scope of this work; but the following brief details, most of them taken from General C. M. MacGregor's account, may be useful.

Ferrier states the following to be the numbers of the male population of Herát capable of bearing arms,—namely, Ghoriáns, 12,000; Sábzawár, 10,000; Farah, 15,000; Bakwa, 4000; Kúrak, 2500; Aimaks, 3000; and Obeh; total, 48,000. Tribes in alliance with Herát and obliged to furnish a contingent are—Hazára Zeidnáts of Kála Nao, 12,000; Táimúnís of Ghor, 8000; Baluchís of Seistán, 5000; total, 25,000;—grand total, 73,000. The Char Aimaks, a pastoral nomadic race, occupy an extensive region of the Province, and congregate in the city of Herát. They pay no tribute, but on the contrary receive a subsidy from the Governor of Herát.

Taylor says that the several tribes subordinate to, or in the neighbourhood of Herát, could collectively assemble 47,000 horse and 23,000 foot, thus:—

Tekke Túrkománs,	15,000 horse.	15,000 foot.
Sarokh ,,	8,000 ,,	...
Salor ,,	2,000 ,,	1,000 ,,
Irsalí, } Chársanghí, }	500 ,,	500 ,,
Hazáras of Persia,	4,000 ,,	...
Jamshidís,	4,000 ,,	...
Táimúnís,	4,000 ,,	2,000 ,,
Táimúrís,	150 ,,	...
Fírozkohís,	5,000 ,,	...
Berbarí Hazáras,	5,000 ,,	5,000 ,,
Total,	47,650	23,500

The country known as the Herát valley is a fertile stretch of land 450 square miles in area, or 30 miles long by 15 broad. The Hari Rúd irrigates the valley. Wheat, barley, maize, and rice are the staple products, and gardens with orchards abound. The poppy is cultivated; but nowhere else in the Province, it is said, will that plant grow. Mulberry trees in every village supply materials for the rearing of silkworms. The population of the Herát valley is estimated (1882) at 100,000, of whom 80,000 are Duránis and 20,000 Farahs and Aimaks. The valley, once well peopled, but greatly depopulated of late years, owing to the tyranny of Yár Muhammad and other Governors of Herát, yields a revenue of £70,000. The land is highly

productive, but its natural resources are imperfectly developed. There are two species of tenure. The land is divided into *khasila* land and *arbabi* land. *Khasila* land is confiscated land or State property. *Arbabi* land is land held by private owners. Owing to misgovernment and consequent insecurity, both tenures are precarious. There are two kinds of assessment on the *arbabi* or privately-owned lands called the *jambasba* and *seh-kot* assessments. The former is a forced assessment; the latter—*seh-kót*, three parts—is the general form of Government demand, and refers to the one-third of the gross produce required on each year's out-turn.

In the time of Yár Muhammad, there were eight battalions of infantry recruited from the tribes he had transported to the Herát region, and Mr. Eastwick says that five regiments of infantry and 4000 cavalry comprised the force kept up. These are nearly all stationed at or near Herát town, and live in their own houses. The revenue of Herát Province has been estimated variously from £89,248 (Conolly) to £130,000 (Burnes). A more recent authority than either puts it at £160,000. Kází Abdul Kádír, one of the late Amír Sher Alí Khán's principal ministers, gives the following approximate return of men, women, and children in the Herát Province:—Men, 140,000; women, 200,000; children, 130,000; total, 470,000.

Herát.—Chief town of the Herát Province, Afghánistán; situated on the right bank of the Hari Rúd river, in a very beautiful and fertile plain. Lat. 34° 22′ N., long. 62° 8′ E.; elevation, 2650 feet. Distance from Kandahár, 369 miles; from Pesháwar *viâ* Kandahár and Kábul, 881 miles; from both Teheran and Khíva, about 700 miles. The city is rectangular and almost square, the northern and southern sides measuring 1500, and the eastern and western sides about 1600 yards in length. It is protected by walls 25 to 30 feet high, built on earthen ramparts varying from 40 to 60 feet in height; and is surrounded by a deep wet ditch. There are five gates; and from the middle of each face run four main streets, which meet in the centre of the town in a small domed quadrangle. The principal of these streets—commencing in the middle of the south face—is covered in throughout its entire length by a vaulted roof; and many of the smaller streets which branch off from the main ones are built over in the same way, forming low dark tunnels. The houses, which are generally two storeys high, are for the most part substantially built of bricks and mud, and are so constructed that each forms in itself a little citadel, capable of resisting men armed with muskets. The town is abundantly supplied with excellent water, most of the houses having wells or reservoirs of their own; yet Herát is said to possess strong claims to be considered the dirtiest city in the world. There are no drains, and the inhabitants have no notions of cleanliness or sanitation.

The principal building is the Jamá Masjíd, situated in the north-east quarter, and built at the end of the 15th century. It occupies an area of 800 yards square; it was, when perfect, 465 feet long by 275 feet wide, and had 408 cupolas, 444 pillars, and 6 entrances. It was splendidly adorned with gilding, and with carved and mosaic work of the most elaborate description. To the west of the Jamá Masjíd is the palace of Chárbágh, a mean building, originally the winter residence of the chiefs of Herát, and occupied by Yákub Khán while Governor of the Province. A large reservoir of water, called the Haoz-i-Chársú, is situated at the south-east corner of the central quadrangle. The Ark, or citadel, which is 150 yards long from east to west and 50 yards wide, is near the centre of the north face, about 200 yards from the main wall. Connecting it with the wall, and projecting beyond it to the east and west, is the Ark-i-náo, or new citadel, which occupies about a thousand feet in length of the north face.

The population of the city has varied greatly from time to time. The most recent estimate does not attempt to number a doubtless very fluctuating population, but sets down the number of houses at 1500. The majority of the inhabitants are Muhammadans of the Shiá sect, but there are besides a number of Hindus and Afgháns; Persians, Tartars, Túrkománs, and Jews are also met with in the principal streets. The original inhabitants appear to have been Persians, and to have belonged to the race that spread from Seistán towards the north-east, and formed the ancient Province of Khorásán, of which, until recently, Herát remained the capital. Probably no city in Central Asia has sustained so many sieges, and been so often destroyed and depopulated. From the middle of the 12th century, when it fell into the hands of the Túrkománs, 'who committed the most frightful ravages, and left not one stone upon another,' till 1863, when it was finally taken by the Amír of Afghánistán, in whose hands it has since remained, Herát has been the scene of continual strife. The Túrkománs, the Uzbegs, and the Persians have repeatedly besieged and taken the city, only to be in turn driven out of it. Its geographical position and strategical importance have given rise to the name 'Key of India,' frequently applied to the town by controversial writers.

Herumálu.—Village in Coorg, at which a *játra* or festival is annually held during *Sivarátri*, in connection with a more frequented festival at the neighbouring village of Irpu.

Heshto (*Hasdo*).—River in Koreá Tributary State, Chutiá Nágpur; the largest river in the State. Rising near Sonhát, it flows south through Koreá into Biláspur in the Central Provinces. It forms a fine waterfall near Kirwáhí.

High Level Canal.—Main system of the Orissa Canal System.—*See* MAHANADI.

Hijili.—Sea-coast division of Midnapur District, Bengal; consisting of the tract of land from the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan along the west bank of the Húglí to the northern boundary of Balasor District. Lat. 21° 37′ to 22° 11′ N., long. 87° 27′ 30″ to 88° 1′ 45″ E. The Survey maps of 1849 return the area at 1013·95 square miles. The tract is well watered by navigable rivers and numerous intersecting water-courses; it produces great quantities of rice, and is dotted with plantations of date-trees and other palms. Prior to the abolition of the Government salt monopoly, Hijili was one of the great seats of salt manufacture in Bengal, by evaporation from the sea. This industry has, however, fallen off to a great extent of late years, the native article being unable to compete with the cheaper imported Liverpool salt. Upon the Company's assuming the administration of Bengal, Hijili, which then contained the large fiscal divisions (*parganás*) of Tamlúk and Mahishádal, constituted a separate administration of its own. In 1789, these two last-named tracts were transferred to Midnapur; and in 1836, Hijili itself was also annexed to that District, with the exception of three small southern *parganás*, which were added to the Orissa District of Balasor.

Hill Tipperah. — Native State adjoining the British District of TIPPERAH, Bengal; lying between 22° 59′ and 24° 31′ N. lat., and between 91° 12′ and 92° 24′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Assam District of Sylhet; on the west by the Bengal Districts of Tipperah and Noákhálí; on the south by Noákhálí and Chittagong; and on the east by the Lushái country and the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The western boundary of the State, where it adjoins the Regulation District of Tipperah, was fixed by arbitration in 1854. The eastern boundary, separating it from the Lushái country and the Chittagong Hill Tracts, is formed, according to the Surveyor-General's map of 1875, by the Lungái river, between the Háichek and Jámpui ranges to its source in Betling Síb peak; the line next runs in an irregular line to the Dolájari peak, and then along the Sardeng range and the Phení river, till the latter enters Noákhálí District. Area, 4086 square miles. Population, according to the Census Report of 1881, 95,637. The capital of the State is AGARTALA, the residence of the Rájá and of the British Political Officer.

Physical Aspects.—As its name implies, the country is hilly. From west to east the ground rises, but neither by a gradual ascent nor by a single sudden elevation. Five or six ranges of hills run parallel, from north to south, at an average distance of about 12 miles from each other. These ranges, and also the valleys between them, increase in height as they approach the east. The hills are covered for the

most part with bamboo jungle, while the low ground abounds with trees of various kinds, cane-brakes, and swamps. Along the north-western and southern boundaries of the State lies a narrow strip of lowland, differing in no material respect, as regards soil, agriculture, and population, from those parts of the Districts of Sylhet, Tipperah, and Chittagong, which adjoin it. From the summit of the ranges, the view of the country is striking, but monotonous. The low bamboo-covered hills look at a distance like mere undulations clad with verdure. Here and there, in the spring, a yellow spot marks the place where the bamboos have been cleared away for the purpose of *júm* cultivation; or the smoke of a hamlet may be seen rising above the jungle and low trees. But one view is exactly the same as another.

The principal hill ranges, beginning from the east, are the Jámpui (highest peaks, Betling Síb, 3200 feet, and Jámpui, 1860 feet), Sakkan Tlang (highest peak, Sakkan, 2578 feet), Langtarái (Pheng Puí peak, 1581 feet), and Atháramurá (highest points, Jári-murá, 1500 feet, and Atármurá, 1431 feet). Betling Síb, the highest point in the State, is the Sorphuel of the old maps. The chief rivers of Hill Tipperah are the GUMTI, Háorá, Khoyái, Dhalái, Manu, Juri, and PHENI, all of which are navigable by boats of about 2 tons during the rainy season only. In the plains the people use boats as almost the sole means of conveyance at this time of the year, and in the hills nearly every family has its dug-out canoe. The thick forests which cover the whole of the hilly tracts of the State yield an important part of the Rájá's revenues, and might, if properly worked, prove much more lucrative than they are. The forest produce is at present farmed, but, for want of accurate knowledge as to what the farms are capable of yielding, they are let out in almost all cases at very low rates. The forest dues, which include cesses for felling and gathering bamboos, canes, reeds, etc., and for exporting the same, amounted in 1881–82 to £5436. Most of the timber floated down the rivers during the rains is used for boat-building, for which it is excellently suited. The forests give shelter to numbers of wild elephants; amongst other large game, the bison, rhinoceros, tiger, leopard, and bear are found, and deer of several kinds are common. Of small game, hares, pheasants, partridges, jungle-fowl, pigeons, snipe, and quail are met with; and the number and variety of singing birds and birds of beautiful plumage are very great. The python, cobra, and bamboo snake are all common; the Lusháis kill the boa-constrictor for food. The revenue obtained by the Rájá from the capture of elephants within his territory ranges from £500 to £2500 a year.

History.—The name Tipperah, a corruption of Trípura, was probably given to the country in honour of the temple at Udaipur, of which remains still exist, and which ranks as the second *tírthá*, or sacred

shrine, in this part of Bengal. It was dedicated either to Tripuradana, the 'sun-god,' or to Trípureswari, the 'mistress of the three worlds.' The history of the State comprehends two distinct epochs—the traditional period described in the *Rájmálá*, or 'Chronicles of the Kings of Tipperah;' and the period since 1407 A.D., to the record of which both the *Rájmálá* and the writings of Muhammadan historians have contributed. The *Rájmálá* is a history in Bengálí verse, compiled by the Bráhmans of the Court of Trípura, and is said to be the oldest specimen of Bengálí composition extant. The Rájá of Hill Tipperah claims descent from Drujho, son of Yayáti, one of the Lunar race of kings; and the chronicle traces his descent with the usual elaboration. The chief points of interest revealed in the early history of the State are, that the Rájás were in a state of chronic feud with all the neighbouring countries except Cachar, and that Siva-worship took early root and spread rapidly through the country. The worship of the All-destroyer was here, as elsewhere in India, associated with the practice of human sacrifice. Tipperah became one of the greatest strongholds of this worship, and in no part of India were more victims offered up. It is said that till the reign of Dharma Mánik (1407-1439), the number of victims was 1000 a year; but Dharma ruled that human sacrifices should only be offered triennially. This Dharma Mánik appears to have been an enlightened prince; and it was under his patronage that the first part of the *Rájmálá* was composed.

It is impossible to define the limits at any given period of the ancient kingdom of Tipperah; but at various times its rule extended from the Sundarbans in the west to Burma in the east, and north as far as Kámrúp. The military prestige of the Tipperah Rájás was at its height during the 16th century, when Rájá Srí Dhanya invaded with success the countries on every side of his native kingdom. Early in that century (1512), the Tipperah general conquered Chittagong, and defeated the Gaur troops who defended it. A strong Mughal force sent from Bengal into the Rájá's territory was compelled to retreat, and a second expedition was not more successful; and it was not until the beginning of the 17th century that the Mughals obtained any footing in the country. About 1620, however, in the reign of Jahángír, a Mughal force under Nawáb Fateh Jang invaded Tipperah, ostensibly with the object of procuring horses and elephants. The capital (Udaipur) was taken, and the Rájá sent prisoner to Delhi. He was offered his throne again on condition of paying tribute, but refused. Meanwhile, the Mughal troops continued to occupy the country in military fashion, until, after two and a half years, they were compelled by an epidemic to retire. The Delhi Emperor reiterated his demand for tribute when Kalyán Mánik was raised to the throne in 1625, and attempted to enforce his claim through the Nawáb of Bengal, who

again invaded the country, but was defeated. Subsequently, by dint of constant invasions and intrigues, the Muhammadans gradually established themselves in Tipperah. They appear, however, only to have occupied the lowlands, while the hilly tracts remained in the possession of the Rájá, but subject to the control of, and tributary to, the Nawáb. When the East India Company obtained the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765, so much of Tipperah as had been placed on the rent-roll came under British rule. (*See* TIPPERAH DISTRICT.)

The English placed a Rájá on the *gadí* of the State; and since 1808, each successive ruler has received investiture from the Government, and has been required to pay the usual *nazar* or fine on accession. From 1826 to 1862, the eastern frontier was constantly disturbed by Kukí raids, in which villages were burned and plundered, and the peaceful inhabitants massacred. What went on in Hill Tipperah no one knew; but vague rumours reached the British authorities of attacks on the Rájá's villages by the wild Kukís, and of attacks on the Kukí tribes by the Rájá's people. An account of the Lusháí (Kukí) raids of 1860 and 1870, and of the means taken to punish the offenders, will be found in the articles on the CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS and TIPPERAH DISTRICT. The Sepoys of the 34th Native Infantry, who mutinied at CHITTAGONG TOWN on the night of the 18th November 1857, after plundering the treasury, marched to Agartalá, the capital of Hill Tipperah. The small military force at the Rájá's disposal did not enable him to oppose the collective body of Sepoys, but orders were issued for the arrest and delivery to the British authorities of all mutineers found wandering within the limits of the State.

The State has a chronological era of its own, adopted by Rájá Bir-ráj, from whom the present Rájá is 92nd in descent. Bir-ráj is said to have extended his conquests across the Ganges; and, in commemoration of that event, to have established a new era dating from his victory. The year 1883 corresponded with 1293 of the Tipperah era.

Political Constitution, etc.—Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government, the State of Hill Tipperah differs alike from the Independent Native States of India and from those which are tributary and dependent. Besides being the ruler of Hill Tipperah, the Rájá also holds a large *zamíndárí* called *chákla* Roshnábád, situated in the plains of the District of Tipperah. This estate, which covers 589 square miles, is by far the most valuable portion of the Rájá's possessions, and yields a larger revenue than the whole of his kingdom of Hill Tipperah. It is held to form with the State an indivisible *ráj*; and consequently, whenever the succession is disputed, the question is decided by the British Courts of law,

whose judgment with regard to the *zamíndárí* has hitherto been always accepted as deciding also the right to the throne. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the *ráj*, producing disturbances and domestic wars, and exposing the inhabitants of the hills to serious disorders and to attacks from Kukis, who are always called in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The cause of these disputes is the rule of succession, the origin of which is lost in obscurity. The rule itself is thus described:—'A reigning Rájá has the power of nominating any male member of the royal family, within certain limits, as his successor, under the title of Jubaráj; and also a successor to the Jubaráj, under the title of Bara Thákur. On the Rájá's death, the Jubaráj becomes Rájá, and the Bara Thákur becomes Jubaráj, the latter in his turn succeeding as Rájá even to the exclusion of the Rájá's natural heirs. It is, however, open to the reigning Rájá to appoint his natural heirs to these dignities when unappropriated; and when no appointments have been made, the eldest son succeeds as a matter of course. Thus a Jubaráj, who becomes Rájá, has no power to pass over the Bara Thákur appointed by his predecessor. That Bara Thákur becomes Jubaráj, and subsequently, if he lives, Rájá. The reigning Rájá, however, has the option of appointing a successor to the new Jubaráj, whom he (the Jubaráj) in his turn cannot set aside.'

The form of government is despotic and patriarchal. The Rájá's word is law and final, and his permission is required in numberless contingencies, great and small. The pay of the officials is generally nominal. Some of them are connected with the Rájá by marriage, or otherwise. Certain offices are hereditary, but they cannot be appropriated without the Rájá's permission. In 1871, an English officer was first appointed as Political Agent to protect British interests and advise the Rájá; but in 1878, a separate Political Agent being found unnecessary, the Magistrate of the adjoining District of Tipperah was appointed *ex officio* Political Agent of Hill Tipperah; and a native Deputy Magistrate of Bengal was stationed at Agartalá as Assistant Political Agent, who has done much to improve the administration of the State. There is no treaty between the British Government and the ruler of Hill Tipperah; but the Rájás pay a fine or succession duty to the Government.

Population.—No regular Census was taken in this State prior to 1881. According to an estimate made in 1874-75, the total population in that year was 74,242, namely, hill population, 47,523; and population of the plains, 26,719. By the Census of 1881, the population of the State was ascertained to be 95,637, namely, males 51,458, and females 44,179; average density of population, 24·4 per square mile. The population of the hills numbered 49,915, and of the plains 45,722.

The most important tribe is that of the Tipperahs, who in 1881 numbered 35,257. They are divided into three classes—the pure or old Tipperahs, the class to which the reigning family belongs; the Jámáityás, or fighting caste; and the Noyattiás, or new Tipperahs. Except the Jámáityás, each of these classes is sub-divided into several castes. They are all of the same religion, and speak the same language, differing only in minor local peculiarities. Their divinities are the gods of fire and water, of the forest and the earth; and sacrifices form an important part of their religion—buffaloes, pigs, goats, and fowls being the animals ordinarily used for the purpose. At the present day they are showing some symptoms of a tendency to conform in many respects to the religious observances of the Hindus, especially with regard to caste. They are superstitious and timid, but capable of committing great cruelties when their passions are roused. The Political Agent, writing in 1873 of the tribe of Tipperahs, thus describes the result of their contact with the Bengálís:—'The people were very simple, truthful, and honest, until corrupted by the evil influences arising from closer intercourse with the inhabitants of the plains, and also by bad government. . . . Every advantage was taken of their ignorance and credulity, till at length they perceived this themselves, and they now no longer hesitate to meet deceit with its own weapons.' An account of the interesting and peculiar social customs of this tribe, given by Captain Lewin in his work on the *Hill Tracts of Chittagong*, is quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 482–488. The other tribes met with in the hills are—the Riangs and Hallams, 11,688; Kukís, 2733; Chákmás, 211; and Khasís, 26. The population in the plains is made up of 9779 Bengálí Hindus, 26,951 Bengálí Muhammadans, 113 Bengálí Christians, 8813 Manipurís, and 66 Assamese.

There are no towns, properly so called, in Hill Tipperah. AGARTALA, the residence of the Rájá, is merely a moderate-sized village, situated on the north bank of the Háora, about 40 miles from Comillah (Kumillá), the chief town of Tipperah District. The population of Agartalá in 1881 was 2141. The administration of the State is conducted from Agartalá; and at the villages of KAILASHAHR and SONAMUNA officers are posted having jurisdiction over certain fixed portions of the State, known as the Sub-divisions of Kailáshahr and Udaipur. Old Agartalá, 4 miles east of the present capital, and until 1844 the residence of the Rájás, contains several monuments to the memory of former rulers; and a small but very sacred temple, in which are kept fourteen heads of gold and other metals, supposed to represent the tutelary gods of the Tipperahs. Old Udaipur, on the Gúmtí, the ancient capital of Udai Mánik, who reigned over the State in the latter half of the 16th century, also contains several

interesting ruins, which are, however, rapidly becoming overgrown with jungle.

Agriculture.—The principal crop and main food staple is rice, of which 14 kinds are cultivated in the plains, and 8 kinds in the hills. Plough cultivation is limited to a narrow strip of land lying along the boundary which divides the State from the adjoining British Districts, and to patches of land in the interior. All the hill tribes cultivate on the *júm* system, a description of which will be found in the article on the CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS. The crops grown on the *júms* are rice, cotton, chillies, and vegetables; the Manipurís inhabiting the low lands under the hills raise a little tobacco for their own use. Tea is not cultivated anywhere, though the plant is said to be indigenous to some parts of the hills. The portion of the State under cultivation forms a very small proportion of the total area. Within recent years the rate of wages has much increased. Agricultural labourers, who a few years ago earned 3d. a day, now receive 4½d.; smiths and carpenters, who formerly received from 4½d. to 6d., now get 7½d. or 8d. a day. The average price of common rice during the ten years ending 1881–82 was 4s. 6d. per cwt.; the highest price reached during the famine of 1866 was 12s. 3d. The rent paid for rice lands varies from 1s. 3d. to 8s. 9d. per acre, according to the position of the land.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal exports of the State are cotton, timber, *tíl*, bamboo, canes, thatching-grass, and firewood. The food crops are scarcely more than sufficient for local wants, and the export is very small. Occasionally, indeed, small imports are required from the neighbouring Districts of Tipperah, Sylhet, and Chittagong. A duty on cotton is levied by the State, and the right to levy a tax on forest produce is leased out annually; the amount of cotton exported in 1881–82 was estimated at 1600 tons. There are 21 markets, five held at places in the hills, and all frequented by hill tribes. The only manufacture is cloth of the coarsest quality, and there are but few roads.

Administration.—The political constitution of the State has been already described. The most important sources of revenue are—(1) the rent of lands in the plains of Hill Tipperah; (2) a family tax in the hills; (3) duties on cotton, forest products, and *tíl;* and (4) the sale of elephants captured in the Rájá's territory. The revenue from the first of these sources in 1881–82 was £3472; the family tax yielded £1799; duties on exports, £15,394; and the royalty on elephants captured, £529. The total revenue derived from Hill Tipperah in that year was £23,779. Besides this, the Rájá's private estates in the Districts of Tipperah and Sylhet yield about £50,000 and £1500 respectively. His total annual income, therefore, is about £75,000. Until 1873, the administration of justice in Hill Tipperah was very defective, there

being no regular procedure and no supervision by the higher courts over the lower. In that year, however, a few simple enactments were passed. The police force in 1881–82 consisted of 110 men of all ranks, in addition to a military force of 306 officers and men. The number of criminal cases instituted in 1881–82 was 517, of which 216 were dismissed or compromised. There are three jails in the State, at Agartalá, Kailáshahr, and Sonámuná; the average daily number of prisoners in 1881–82 was 40. The State maintains 27 schools; and out of a population of 95,637, only 575 boys and 34 girls were under education in 1881. Steps are now being taken to introduce the *páthsála* system among the hill people, but they appear to have no desire for such innovations.

Medical Aspects. — The climate of Hill Tipperah is said to be generally pleasant. The annual rainfall is about 80 inches. The chief endemic diseases are bowel complaints, remittent and intermittent fevers, and rheumatism; the principal epidemic is cholera. There is a hospital at Agartalá, and a dispensary at Kailáshahr.

Hilsá.—Town and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 19′ 10″ N., long. 85° 19′ 31″ E. Large market village, carrying on a brisk trade in food-grains and oil-seeds with Patná, Gayá, and Hazáribágh.

Himálaya Mountains.—The Himálayas, literally 'The Abode of Snow,' from the Sanskrit *hima*, frost (Latin *hiems*, winter), and *álaya*, dwelling-place, comprise a system of stupendous ranges, with some of the loftiest peaks in the world. The *Emodus* of Ptolemy, they extend continuously, in shape something like a scimitar with its blade facing south, for a distance of 1500 miles along the northern frontier of India, from the gorge where the Dihong (the connecting river link between the Sanpo (Tsan-pu) of Tibet and the Brahmaputra of Assam) bursts through their main axis, to where the Indus, having reached its northernmost latitude, turns and pierces through the same mountains to enter on its southerly course towards the Arabian Sea. It is clear, however, even from the imperfect indications which we possess of this great range in its eastern extremity, that the true axis can be traced for some little distance eastward of the Dihong. The Eastern Himálayas eventually merge in the mountain system which runs southward into Burma, and eastward towards the extensive ranges of China. The western ranges of the Himálayas have been supposed by some to curve round and extend into the basin of the Kábul river in Afghánistán. But with this quasi-prolongation of the mountain chain we are not concerned, its true connection with the main mass being as yet a matter of extreme uncertainty.

The Himálayas form one of the chief ranges of Asia, and with the Kuen Luen converge westward towards the Pamir table-land,

that mountainous knot whence the Tian-shan and the Hindu Kush also radiate. With the Kuen Luen the Himálayas have a closer connection, as these two mighty ranges form respectively the northern and southern escarpment of the lofty Tibetan plateau. Owing, however, to the plentiful rainfall on the southern slopes of the Himálayas, to which the rain-clouds are swept direct from the sea, the river system formed thereby is incomparably more extensive than that of the Kuen Luen range. This may account for the serrated character of the Himálayas as contrasted with the sheer wall-like face of the Kuen Luen. A similar feature may be observed in the gorges and indented nature of the Suláimán chain, which buttresses the Iranian plateau on the western frontier of India; while the analogy is carried still further by the Suláimán being characterised by a triple series of ranges, two of which are pierced by streams rising on the watershed of the inmost range (just as in the case of the Indus, Sutlej (Satlaj), and Brahmaputra); and lastly, by the fact that the Himálayas and Suláimán belong to approximately the same geological age, both, as is proved by their structure, being of comparatively recent (middle and later tertiary) date. The Himálayas themselves are but portion of a great chain of mountains. The rest of the chain is composed of the Hindu Kush and Karakoram ranges. From one or other side of this chain flow all the great rivers of Asia. From or through the southern slope of the Himálayas flow the Indus, the Ganges, and the Brahmaputra.

A more striking analogy exists between the Himálayas and the Andes. This analogy was first perceived by Warren Hastings, and reference is made to it in his instructions to his envoy, Mr. George Bogle. The Andes and the Himálayas alike consist of three parallel chains. The Cuesta of La Raya, separating the valley of the Vilcamayu from the basin of Titicaca, is the counterpart of the Mariam-la saddle dividing the Sutlej and Brahmaputra basins. In both systems numerous streams rise in the central cordillera, and, after lateral courses between the two, eventually force their way through the outer chain. The Southern Himálayas bear a close analogy to the outer Andes rising from the valley of the Amazon. Both have a low range at their feet enclosing valleys or *dúns*; both have deep gorges separated by lofty ridges, which are spurs from a main chain of culminating snowy peaks; and in both, the rivers which rise in the inner central range force their way through profound ravines between the culminating summits. In both Peru and Tibet, too, the staple produce is wool, which is carried across the huge mountainous barrier bounding either country, by llamas and sheep respectively.

The Himálayan system has formed the subject of many treatises, in which attempts have been made to explain the physical structure of the whole mountainous mass. Foremost among them may be mentioned

the writings of Captain Herbert, Mr. Brian Houghton Hodgson, Major Cunningham, Captain Henry Strachey, Dr. T. Thomson, Dr. J. D. Hooker, Mr. Drew, Mr. Clements Markham, and Baron von Richthofen. The writings of Mr. B. H. Hodgson endeavoured to establish among other things the 'oceanic' theory. The oceanic theory represents the Himálayas as the base of an ancient ocean, of which the bed was long ago the Indian plains. The earliest of the authorities, however, laboured under the disadvantage of having at their disposal but scanty data for generalization; and although, even at present, the Himálayas are most imperfectly known, our knowledge of them has been greatly extended of late years, particularly by the Indian native explorers at detached points in the eastern half, and by the more exhaustive labours of topographical and geological surveyors in the north-western portion. The late Mr. Andrew Wilson, who explored the range in 1881, has well described its characteristics from the standpoint of an untechnical traveller.

The Northern Chain.—The most comprehensive view of the system represents it as composed of three chains, to which the names of Northern, Central, and Southern are applied. The Northern chain is naturally divided into a western and an eastern section, the western being known as the Karakoram or Muztagh, forming, speaking broadly, the water-parting (though not a completely uninterrupted one) between the basins of Lob-Nor and the Indus. It is the circumstance of the culminating chain not being wholly coincident with the line of water-parting which led the late Mr. Shaw, with much force, to plead for the substitution of the appellation of Muztagh to that of Karakoram for this portion of the Northern range. The KARAKORAM PASS is undoubtedly a point on the real line of water-parting; the streams north of it join the Tarim basin, while those on its southern slope discharge into the Indus. But the true culminating range lies south of it, and is pierced by the last-named tributaries. It is this, combined with the singular applicability of the name Muztagh, 'Ice Mountain,' to a line of mountains which is crowned by the most stupendous glaciers of the world, outside the Arctic regions, which lends reason to Mr. Shaw's proposal. The peaks along this section of the Himálayas frequently attain a height of 25,000 feet, and the chief one (which is as yet unnamed, but is distinguished by the sign 'K 2' in the records of the Great Trigonometrical Survey) is 28,265 feet high, being second in altitude only to Mount Everest. The best known passes across this section of the range, which may be said broadly to extend from its junction with the Hindu Kush near the Baroghil Pass to Mount Káilas near Lake Mánasarowar in Tibet, are the Karakoram and the Changchenmo, exceeding 18,000 and 19,000 feet respectively in height. But besides these, there are a variety of minor passes, such as the Karambar, the Muztagh, and especially a pass on the road between Rudok and

Kiria, which deserve fuller examination. The southern slopes of the Muztagh range in its northern portion are clothed with enormous glaciers, one of which, sketched by Colonel Godwin Austen (whose remarkable surveys in these regions have formed the basis of our topographical knowledge), attained the length of 35 miles. From these glaciers issue streams which, flowing south between bare craggy mountains, join the Indus or its tributary the Shayok. The collective name applied to the various Districts which comprise the valleys of the Indus, Basha, Braldu, Shigar, Shayok, etc., is Baltistán. The inhabitants are Muhammadanized Tibetans of Turanian stock, with the exception of a small section who are Dards. The northern face of the Muztagh range is but little known.

As regards the southern portion of this section of the Northern range, information is extremely scanty. Between the Changchenmo Pass and Mount Kailás, it has been crossed at rare intervals by the native explorers of the Indian Survey; but anything like a complete survey is impossible, owing to the jealousy and exclusive character of the Tibeto-Chinese policy. The southern slopes give birth to the rivers Indus and Sutlej, which both break through the central and southern ranges in their course towards the sea.

To the east of Lake Mánasarowar a saddle, surmounted by the Mariam-la Pass, connects the Northern and Central ranges. On its eastern side rises the Sanpo (Tsan-pu) or Brahmaputra, of which the Northern range forms the northern watershed as far as to the south of the Sky-Lake (*Tengri-Nur* in Mongolian, and *Nam-Cho* in Tibetan). Hence it appears to curve round the lake in a north-easterly direction for 150 miles, after which its further course is unknown. This eastern section of the range is called Ninjin-thangla or Nyenchhen-tangla by the native explorer and Mr. Brian Hodgson respectively; Baron von Richthofen, on the other hand, has named it Tang-la, and detaches it from the Himálayas, treating it instead as a portion of the Chinese system. The existence of this entire portion of the Northern range has been clearly demonstrated by the journeys of Pundit Nain Singh, and of the young Tibetan explorer who discovered Lake Tengri-Nur in 1872. The northern watershed drains into a system of inland lakes, which appear to constitute a connected chain, and which there is reason to believe has its outlet in either the Salwín or Mekong river. The southern face is the northern watershed of the Sanpo or Brahmaputra.

Between the Northern and Central ranges, there runs an important though subsidiary chain from Mount Kailás near Lake Mánasarowar to the junction of the Indus and the Shayok. According to Cunningham, who calls it the Kailás or Gangri range, this chain is 550 miles in length. Its peaks average between 16,000 and 20,000 feet in height;

and it is crossed in its northern portion by a number of passes, which lead from the valley of the Indus into that of the Shayok. About 33° 12′ N. lat., it is pierced by the Indus itself, which deviates at right angles and cuts right through this granite range to resume a north-westerly course beyond. The southern portion of this range lies in Tibetan territory, and is but little known, but it has been crossed at four points by native explorers.

The Central Chain, according to present knowledge, appears in its eastern portion to coincide pretty closely with the zone of 'central gneiss,' the geological main axis of the Himálayas. This great range has its commencement in the conspicuous peak Nanga Parbat, 'Naked Mountain,' 26,629 feet high, which towers conspicuously on the extreme verge of the Kashmír frontier, above the Indus valley, not far from the place where the river enters upon its course through a belt of independent territory, before rejoining the British frontier above Darband. This lofty mountain has been seen by General Cunningham from Rámnagar in the Punjab, a distance of 205 miles. Tracing the Central chain from this point towards the south-east, we find that for the first 50 or 60 miles the chain, which here forms the water-parting between the Indus and the Jehlam (Jhelum), is not of such a height as to bear perpetual snow or give origin to glaciers. Two frequented roads, joining the Kishanganga and Astor rivers, go over passes of upwards of 13,000 feet, and others lead into the Dras valley. At the point where the Dras Pass (11,300 feet) affords access from the Kashmír valley to the high table-land of Ladakh, a minor range branches off and separates successively the Sind valley, the northern part of the vale of Kashmír, and the Jehlam valley, on the south, from the Kishangangá on the north. A little south of the same pass, another ridge branches off, and, running north and south, forms the eastern boundary of the vale, till near Banihal it joins itself to the Pir Panjal range, which in its turn runs east and west for about 30 miles, then turns north-north-west and continues for some 40 miles more till it dies off towards the valley of the Jehlam. This range completes the mountainous girdle which encircles the valley of Kashmír.

To return to the Central range itself. About the vicinity of the Dras Pass, the mountain range increases in height, and the peaks are high enough to form glaciers; two of them, Nun and Kun, each over 23,000 feet in height, being conspicuous. The north-eastern slope of the range drains into the Indus; the Suru and Zanskar being the chief rivers. The latter flows through a peculiarly inaccessible district called by the same name as its chief river. The shape of the valley is roughly that of a capital T, the upper portion of which runs parallel to the main axis of the range. A little farther to the south, the

Bara Lacha Pass (16,200 feet) affords a route from Láhul and Kángra to Leh.

Proceeding farther to the south-east, the Central range is broken by the gloomy precipitous gorge of the Sutlej (the classic Hesudrus), which, rising in the holy lakes of Rakas Tal and Mánasarowar, on the southern side of the Tibetan Kailás, takes a north-westerly course for 280 miles, till, swelled by the waters of the Spiti river, it turns and cleaves through the two outer ranges, emerging on the plains of India at Ropar, after a course of 560 miles. The junction of the Sutlej and Spiti rivers is marked by a magnificent peak 22,183 feet high, entitled Lio Porgyul, which rises sheer from the edge of the two streams 13,000 feet below its summit. Farther to the south-east there are numerous passes leading from British territory over the Central range into Hundes, among which the Niti Pass (16,676 feet) claims notice, as the route leading across it to Khotan, by way of Totling, Gartokh, Rudokh, Noh, and Kiria, is the best and easiest route between Eastern Turkistán and India. Four passes lead through the line of snowy peaks which form the barriers of Tibet. The passes are the Nilang, the Mána, the Milam, and the Lanpiya-dhúra. The Tibetan authorities are excessively jealous of foreign intrusion, and admission to Tibet is not only very difficult, but sometimes dangerous.

Eastward, the knowledge available about the Central range is very fragmentary, as it lies wholly beyond the British frontier, and the interval is occupied by the Native States of Nepál, Sikkim, and Bhután. On its northern side the range is clothed with enormous glaciers, which drain into the Sanpo river; while its southern slopes give rise to many large rivers, which, bursting through the Southern chain, eventually discharge their waters into the Ganges or the Brahmaputra. Foremost among these is the Ganges itself, the source of which was determined by the Survey of Captain Raper and Lieutenant Webb to lie a few miles beyond Gangotri. Next should be mentioned the Káli, Karnáli, Náráyani, Burí Gandak, Tirsuli Gandak, Bhutia Kosi, and Arun, all of which flow through Nepál—possibly some of the tributaries of the Manás in Bhután, which would appear to be called Lhobra-chu in its upper course, and the Sikung Sanpo, which there is good reason to identify with the Subansiri. To the east of the Mariam-la Pass, only three Englishmen are said to have ever crossed the Central range,—viz. Bogle, Turner, and Manning,—and to have all crossed at the same point, where the Parnam-chu, which rises in two lakes situated between the two southern ranges, pierces through the Central range to join the Brahmaputra. Five of the native explorers are also known to have crossed the same range at different points, viz. Lagung-la, Dong-la, No-la, Fotu-la, and Karkang.

From the Central range many lofty saddles branch forth, in some places

forming inland lakes, in others directing the course of rivers either to the Sanpo or through the gorges of the Southern range. An imposing view of the long line of glaciers and peaks of the Central range was obtained by Dr. Hooker from the Dankia-la Pass in Sikkim. Two of the most remarkable of the inland lakes referred to are the Palti and Chomtodong lakes. The former (14,700 feet above the sea) is about 20 miles long and 16 broad, without an outlet. This lake is situated north of the Arun basin, and, like the Palti Lake, is encircled by spurs from the Central range. The Palti or Yamdok-cho Lake is ring-shaped, and has appeared on all maps since D'Anville's time. It is supposed to be about 45 miles in circumference; the island in the centre rises into rounded hills from 2000 to 3000 feet high. The lake is said by all authorities to have no outlet; and both Manning and Klaproth (who accumulated much information respecting it) state that the waters are very bad; but Pandit Nain Singh, on the other hand, asserts that the waters are perfectly fresh. Eastward of this lake, and about the 92nd meridian of longitude, the Central range has been crossed by Nain Singh at the Karkang Pass (16,310 feet), whence the snowy peaks of the Northern and Southern chains, as well as those of the transverse ranges joining the latter, could be plainly descried. Beyond this, existing knowledge of the Central range does not at present extend.

The Southern Chain. — In treating of the Southern chain of the Himálayas, it is convenient to observe that both Mr. Hodgson and Mr. Drew, who are the best authorities on the subject of this range, in its eastern and western sections, agree in ascribing to it a threefold character. Mr. Drew calls these zones the Outer Hills and the Middle and Higher Mountains; Mr. Hodgson, the Lower, Central, and Upper regions. But the respective characteristics are the same in both sections, although local circumstances and the greater humidity towards the east beget apparent divergence.

The origin of the Southern range at its north-western extremity is not yet fixed with precision, but it appears to spring from the southernmost point of the Pir Panjal range, with which it is undoubtedly connected in a geographical sense. At its outset it is pierced by the waters of the Chenáb, the main stream of which rises in Láhul, far to the south-east, under the name of Chandra-bhaga, and for 180 miles drains the south-western and north-eastern slopes of the Central and Southern ranges respectively. The peaks of the latter gradually increase in height, from 1300 to 20,000 feet; and its outer slopes are washed by the Raví and Beas, the feeders of which rise on the southern side of the culminating ridge. Passing the Sutlej, the road up the gorge of which is connected with Simla by the so-called Great Hindustán and Tibet Road, we note the Bhágiráthí, Alaknandá, and a variety of rivers already

referred to, which rise in the interval between the two southern ranges, and flow through ravines and gorges in the Southern range on their way to join the Ganges and Brahmaputra; while minor streams which rise on the southern face complete the copious hydrography of the region. A detailed enumeration of these would be unnecessary; but it is desirable, in connection with this physical feature of the Himálayas, to note the theory held by Mr. Hodgson, but rejected by some later geographers. Mr. Hodgson and others have contended that the succession of stupendous peaks found in the Southern Himálayas do not form a chain, as they are separated, and their connecting ridge is broken by the numerous rivers which rise to the north. He argues, therefore, that these peaks form a series of culminating points of spurs jutting out from the Central range. On the other hand, it has been answered that this is not a question of fact but of nomenclature, and that the designation of chain is justified by the analogy of the chains or cordilleras of the Andes, which are pierced in a precisely similar manner, but to which no one denies the appellation in question.

The peaks of the Southern range constitute a series of the loftiest mountain summits in the known world. Their respective heights have been measured with the utmost exactitude by triangulation from the plains. Many of these exceed 25,000 feet above sea-level, and the highest, named Mount Everest after Sir George Everest, who was Surveyor-General of India from 1830 to 1843, is 29,002. It is believed to be the highest known mountain on the surface of the earth.

Physical Geography.—For a sketch of the physical geography of the Himálayas, it is preferable to commence from the plains of India. The core or nucleus of all mountain masses is formed of crystalline rocks, while stratified rocks are largely found in the lower subordinate ranges. And it is as much so in the case of the Himálayas, as it is in the case of the Alps, the Pyrenees, or the Rocky Mountains. As already remarked, the Southern range of the Himálayas naturally falls into three divisions or regions, corresponding, as regards organic development, to the three zones of the earth—tropical, temperate, and arctic. The aggregate breadth of these averages about 90 miles, and they gradually increase in height from the south, a factor which chiefly determines the climate, as for every thousand feet of height gained there is a diminution of 3 or 3½ degrees of Fahrenheit. In the Punjab, the transition from the plains to the Outer Hills is marked by a belt of dry, porous ground, seamed by numerous gullies or ravines, from a hundred yards to a mile wide, partly covered with long, tufty jungle grass, which is frequented by the black buck or antelope. To the east, the *Tarái*, or submontane tract, occupies the same position.

This is a belt of slowly sloping, waste, marshy ground, a fever-stricken region of varying breadth, lying below the level of the plains. The tract affords pasture to innumerable herds of cows and buffaloes. Beyond lies a dry belt of more rapidly sloping ground than the *Tarái*, called *Bhábar*, chiefly of a gravelly and sandy nature, and overgrown with a splendid growth of the valuable timber tree called *sál* (Shorea robusta). Next intervenes the fossiliferous sandstone range (SIWALIKS), which does not rise more than three to six hundred feet above its immediate base, but which almost uniformly edges the Himálayas from the Jehlam to Upper Assam. The space between these and the slope of the Himálayas themselves is occupied by the *dúns*, called *maris* (in Nepál), and *dwárs* (in Bhután)—longitudinal valleys of rising ground, either cultivated or yielding a plentiful forest growth.

Flora and Fauna.—The vegetation clothing this region consists of *sáls*, *sissus*, acacias, mimosas, cotton-trees, etc.; the fauna, which to the east is abundant, includes the elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, deer, many birds, and numerous reptiles from the lizard to the python. In the western part of the middle region, forests of Himálayan oak, pine, spruce, silver fir, and deodar, occupy a great part of the mountain slopes, while other denizens of the temperate zones, in addition to tree rhododendra, tea allies, paper and wax trees, occur. The more sunny parts, where forest trees do not flourish (except where rocks jut out), are well covered with herbage, plants, and flowers, resembling those of Central or Southern Europe. The more noticeable among the animal types are bovine and caprine antelopes, sun bears (helarctos), leopards, and wild cats. The eastern part of the upper region is one of the superior conifers, though to the north-west these descend to a lower level, while the valleys of the highest regions are there occupied by a few fruit-trees, willows, and poplars. The cedars and deodars of the Himálayas attain magnificent proportions; in the Sutlej valley the former are sometimes 40 feet in girth and 200 feet in height. The chief representatives of the upper region among animals are the so-called bison (Bos gaurus), yák or Tibetan ox, musk-deer, wild goat and sheep, bear, ounce, fox, pheasant, partridge, etc. Mr. Hodgson has remarked that, generally speaking, the zoology of the Himálayas is much wider in the multitude of its diverse forms (genera and species) than in individuals of the same form, and that it is remarkably allied to the zoology of the Malayan islands; but that as one proceeds northwards towards the snows, it approximates to European types.

Geological Structure.—Knowledge of the geology of the Himálayas is scanty; but, thanks to the *Manual of the Geology of India*, a better position with regard to it has been of recent years obtained. The information upon which to base a geological outline consists of Captain R.

Strachey's account of part of Hundes, Stoliczka's observations on Western Tibet, and occasional reports by members of the Geological Survey in the Lower and Sub-Himálayan ranges, besides a few isolated observations. The site of the Himálayas, like the sites of the Alps and other mountain systems, is, in accordance with a fundamental principle of geology, believed to have at one time formed part of the bed of an ancient ocean. It is thought that originally our planet possessed an enormously high temperature; that it was thrown off from its parent sun with a temperature probably fiercer than that of the sun at present; and that since it was thrown off it has been gradually cooling and contracting. The external crust of the earth, varying in strength and structure, has yielded unequally to the strain of contraction; and one result is the formation of hills, ridges, and mountains. The mountain masses thus arise out of a sea which has gradually evaporated, leaving not only hills and mountains on its ancient surface, but a new surface of various marine deposits. There is, of course, no regularity in the results of this contracting process, and the Alps, for example, present features far different from those of the Himálayas. The Himálayas are less richly clothed than the Alps. But so far as is known, the Himálayas exhibit more regularity of structure than the Alps. Three zones of permanent significance can be indicated. On the south there is a continuous fringing belt of lower ridges, known as the sub-Himálayas, divided into the Siwálik and Sirmúr (Sarmor) series, and composed of tertiary rocks. Between this marginal zone and the great snowy range there lies throughout the whole length of the Himálayas, to as far west as the Sutlej, a broad area some 50 miles wide, consisting of irregular ridges of average moderate elevation, from 5000 to 8000 feet, some ranging up to 12,000, all largely made up of crystalline metamorphic rocks, in obscure relation with some unaltered formations, the latter being for the most part of very uncertain age. This great area, characterised by extreme complexity of structure, is distinguished by Mr. Medlicott as the Lower Himálayan region; while he applies the term Central or Tibetan Division to the great snowy range, which is characterised by several parallel axes of gneissic rocks and intervening synclinal basins of little-altered fossiliferous formations.

The most favoured conclusion respecting the sub-Himálayas is that they were upraised in late tertiary times. The prevailing rocks are soft, massive sandstones, associated in variable proportions with conglomerates and clays. With the exception of two places on the Bhután frontier where the marginal slopes of the plains reach to the base of the Lower Himálayan region, the fringe of tertiary rocks is, so far as is known, continuous from the Brahmaputra to the Jehlam. West of the Sutlej, where the Lower Himálayan area ends, there is an equivalent increase in the width of the sub-Himálayan zone. One of the gaps in

the tertiary zone occurs in front of the great gap between the Assam range and the Rájmahál Hills, through which all the Himálayan drainage passes on to the Bay of Bengal, but it is probable that the sandstones were once continuous across these gaps. Through Upper Assam the sub-Himálayan Hills recur in full force to the Brahmaputra gorge, where they bend round across the head of the Assam valley, and conform to a system of disturbance having a totally different direction from that of the Himálayas proper.

Of the Lower Himálayas the geological information is very scanty. For 500 miles in Nepál there are only notes on one short section in the middle, and east of this throughout the whole range only one narrow area has been examined—in Sikkim. In the north-west most observations have been made, and here a continuous broad belt of unaltered limestones and shaly slates is found at the edge of the mountains, and at many points extending far into the interior. Eastwards it contracts, till on the Khatmandu section it has disappeared, and in Sikkim gneissic rocks come very close to the southern or main boundary. Thus from end to end of the range we have found two great rock series, a slaty and a gneissic. In the Simla region a strong case has been made out for very great unconformity between the two, showing the palæozoic rocks to have been deposited upon a very deeply and irregularly eroded surface of the old gneissic series; and structural features homologous to those of the Simla ground have been indicated in the east, so that should this relation of the two series be established throughout the range, a connection will have been made out between the Lower Himálayan region and a primitive gneissic mass forming a fundamental nucleus for the whole series of Himálayan formations.

The materials for a description of the Central or Tibetan Himálayas, which is the name applied by the authors of the *Manual of the Geology of India* to all the remaining portions of the Himálayan Mountains, are extremely limited. With the exception of Dr. Hooker, observers within the Tibetan frontier have confined themselves to the north-western portion of the range. Owing to the difficulty of traversing such rugged ground, information is deficient. From end to end of the partially known ground, two gneissic axes are more or less continuous. The southern of these is the Himálayan range proper, or Southern range of our geographical description, of which in Sikkim, and again west of Nepál for 300 miles, gneiss is the predominant rock, many of the highest and most massive peaks being formed of it. The second gneissic axis runs parallel to the first, at a distance of 50 to 80 miles, separating the Indus from its tributary the Shayok, and has also been referred to above. Between these two gneissic axes there is a long synclinal basin, in which the fossiliferous rocks are found in more or less complete sequence; and north of the Ladákh gneissic axis the

same sedimentary series comes in again, the area being a broad synclinal basin, the newest rocks being found in the centre of it in the Karakoram ridge, while the older formations rise again to the north against a third gneissic axis forming the core of the Kuen Luen range. As a single geological axis, the main Himálayan range may be said to end with the Lower Himálayan area in the Simla region, to the north-west of which there are three independent ranges with gneissic axis,—the Zanskar, Pír Panjál, and the Dhauladhar, — each of which has some claim to be considered the continuation of the main range of the Middle Himálayas. The chief sedimentary basins in which fossiliferous formations occur are the two central basins of Zanskar and Hundes, the northern basin of the Karakoram, and the southern area of Kashmír and Pangi.

Minerals.—Most parts of the Himálayas are known to contain metallic ores, particularly iron, lead, and copper, and of the two former there is no deficiency in the mountains between the Sutlej and Kálí. Salt, borax, and gold are not unfrequent beyond the frontier. Gold is found in the streams of the Province of Kumáon, and is mined in Tibet. Traders chiefly use the gold or gold-dust which is extracted. In Tibet the gold mines are managed by a gold 'commissioner' who holds a triennial contract direct from Lhasa. Extracted from the mine in its pure state, and tied up in little bags, each containing about 90 grains, it forms the heavy currency of the region. Iron and copper are worked in Kumáon.

Ethnology.—The region of the Himálayan Mountains forms the meeting-ground of the Aryan and the so-called Turanian races, the latter having in all probability invaded India at the innumerable points of access to be found along the mountain chain. The majority of the dwellers in the Himálayas up to the Tibetan frontier are Hindus. The two great stocks of Aryan and Turanian are in some places curiously intermingled, though generally distinguishable. To the extreme north-west are found the Dards, an Aryan race of mountaineers, abutting on the Patháns or Afgháns on the west; and the Baltis, a race of Muhammadanized Tibetans of the Turanian stock, on the east. To this latter stock also belong the Champas, a race of hardy nomads wandering about the high level valleys of Rupshu, and the Ladákhis, a settled race, cultivating the valleys of their country. The other Aryan races are the Paháris or 'mountaineers,' the Kashmíris, and the Dogras and Chibhalis, who inhabit the Outer Hills. In Garhwal and Kumáon are found the Kanawárs (inhabitants of Bashahr); the Nilangs, people who differ in no respect from those of Hundes; and the inhabitants of the Bhutia Maháls of Kumáon and Garhwal, who are of mixed Tartar and Indian origin. In Nepál, Sikkim, and Bhután, the following tribes occur, proceeding from west to east :—

(1) The Cis-Himálayan Bhutias or Tibetans, (2) the Sunwar, (3) Gurung, (4) Magar, (5) Murmi, (6) Nawar, (7) Kiranti, (8) Limbu, (9) Lepcha, who inhabit Sikkim, and (10) the Bhutánese or Lhopa. Of these, full ethnological details will be found in Mr. Hodgson's exhaustive essays; but the subject is too large a one to receive more than a passing allusion here. Mr. Hodgson's long-continued researches in Nepál are the foundation of our knowledge alike of the natural history and the ethnology of the Himálayas. His essays, drawings, and scientific collections form, perhaps, the most wonderful memorial of intellectual activity which any Indian civilian has left behind.

Little is certainly known concerning the history, the domestic character and habits, or the political civilisation of the inhabitants of the Himálayas. Mr. Andrew Wilson, a tourist rather than an explorer, has noted their 'dingy-coloured, flat-roofed hamlets,' and the Lama monasteries, seen upon occasional heights, but more frequently catching the eye of the traveller as he penetrates towards the Buddhist country of Tibet. With these monasteries the current history and tradition of the people deal; while the exclamation, perpetually used in the most trifling daily affairs, of the Buddhist phrase, '*Om mani pad me haun*'—lit. 'O God, the jewel in the lotus; Amen,' but used as a prayer for the wellbeing of six classes of living things — points to the simple piety of a race springing naturally from the virtues of patience, honesty, and placidity of temper which travellers have agreed in assigning to them. The beasts of burden used for all purposes are the long-backed, shaggy-haired, and savage-looking yák or grunting ox of Tibet, which after death supplies in its white tail an article of commerce. Polyandry is much practised, especially in, and on the confines of, Tibet, where it is not an unusual thing to find six brothers sharing one wife among them, yet maintaining for years the happiest relations. The European traveller in the Himálayas is said not to be the source of awe to the hardy people of the hills that he is often to the inhabitants of more level regions. Starting at Simla or Masúri (Mussoorie), he may engage his *begarís*, or porters, and determine to press on; but at Shipki, or some other Tibetan post, he will find himself prevented, if necessary, by force, from further progress. The traveller who goes even as far as Shipki will have to meet natural obstacles, such as glaciers, avalanches, torrents bridged by swinging ropes and little more, the merest tracks for ponies, muddy water, and the other inconveniences and hindrances to be encountered in any secluded mountain region. [For further information regarding the Himálayas, see *A Manual of the Geology of India*, by Messrs. H. B. Medlicott and W. T. Blanford of the Geological Survey of India (3 vols., Calcutta, 1879). Also the *Gazetteer of the North-Western*

Provinces (Himálayan Districts, vols. x. and xi.), by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S. (Allahábad, 1884).]

Himmatgarh.—Village in Gwalior territory, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 3′ N., and long. 78° 5′ E., at the northern extremity of a narrow pass, extending from north to south through a range of rocky sandstone hills to the town of PANNIAR (Paniyár), the scene of an engagement (on the 29th December 1843) between the British under General Grey and the Maráthás, in which the latter were utterly defeated.—*See* PANNIAR.

Hindan (called also **Harnad**).—River of the North-Western Provinces; rises in lat. 30° 8′ N., long. 77° 50′ E., at the south-western angle of the Siwálik Hills, and flows in a general southerly direction through the greater part of the Upper Doáb. Its banks rise to a considerable height on either side, enclosing a *khádir*, or alluvial lowland, liable to be flooded in the rainy season. Excellent crops are produced on this strip of inundated land. The chief tributary is the West Káli Nadí, which joins the main stream on the borders of Meerut (Merath) and Muzaffarnagar Districts. The Hindan has a total course of 160 miles, and falls at length into the Jumna (Jamuná) in Bulandshahr District, in lat. 28° 28′ N., long. 77° 28′ E. Irrigation by the wheel and bucket is largely practised along its banks. The river can be forded throughout the greater portion of its course. Navigation cannot take place on any part of the stream. Surface velocity at Gháziábád, 11 feet per second. An iron bridge on the Delhi and Alígarh road, and another on the Delhi branch of the East Indian Railway, cross the Hindan within a few hundred yards of one another.

Hindaun.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 44′ N., and long. 77° 5′ E., on the old route from Agra to Mhau (Mhow), 71 miles south-west of the former, 344 north-east of the latter, and 14 miles due north of the town of Karauli, the capital of the Karauli State. Hindaun is also connected with the Hindaun Road station of the Rájputána State Railway by a metalled unbridged road, 35 miles in length. Once an extensive city, but now, owing chiefly to Maráthá devastations, much decayed. The rampart which formerly surrounded the city is in ruins. Population (1881) 12,761, of whom 10,287 are Hindus and 2290 Muhammadans. An unfurnished road-bungalow is distant about ¼ mile north-west of the town. The Mahábhír fair held here annually is attended by as many as 100,000 pilgrims. Post-office and dispensary.

Hindaur. — Village in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated on the road from Bela to Rái Bareli, about 15 miles from the former. Stated to have been founded by a demon (*rakshasa*) named Hindaur. Formerly a prosperous place, but now much decayed. Remains of the old fort and tanks are still to be seen. Hindaur was

for some time the head-quarters of the Sombansi *ráj* of Partábgarh. Population (1881), Hindus 836, and Musalmáns 356; total, 1192.

Hindiá.—Town and fort in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. —*See* HANDIA.

Hindol.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa; situated between lat. 20° 29′ 30″ and 20° 49′ 30″ N., and between long. 85° 8′ 35″ and 85° 31′ 15″ E. Bounded on the north and east by Dhenkánal State; on the south by Barambá and Narsinghpur States; and on the west by the confiscated estate of Angul. Area, 312 square miles, with 197 villages and 5261 houses. Population (1872) 28,025; (1881) 33,802, namely, males 16,987, and females 16,815. Classified according to religion, there were in 1882—Hindus, 31,637, or 93·6 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 853, or 2·5 per cent.; Christians, 4; and 'others,' or non-Hindu aborigines, 1308, or 3·88 per cent. Average density of population, 108 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·63; persons per village, 171; houses per square mile, 17·4; persons per house, 6·4. The aboriginal tribes, many of whom are returned as Hindus by religion, are almost entirely Taálas and Kandhs. The most numerous Hindu castes are—Chásás, Bráhmans, and Khandáits. The Cuttack and Sambalpur high-road runs through the State in a south-easterly direction, and small quantities of country produce are thus brought to the Mahánadí, and there sold to travelling merchants. No fairs or markets are held, and only the following 10 villages are returned as containing upwards of 100 houses—viz. Karinda, 216 houses; Rasoli, 194 houses; Ranjagol, 165 houses; Didárkot, 158 houses; Nuachaini, 149 houses; Kalinga, 140 houses; Chitalpur, 129 houses; Pora, 112 houses; Gualipal, 110 houses; and Rasoli-patná, 102 houses. Hindol consisted originally of 3 or 4 petty States, completely buried in jungle, and ruled by separate chiefs, till two Maráthá brothers, belonging to the family of the Kimidi Rájá in Madras, drove them out and formed their territories into one principality. The present chief (1883) is 26th in descent from the original founder. He maintains a military force of 83 men, and a police force 133 strong. His estimated annual revenue is returned at £2089; tribute, £55. A post-office has been recently established at Rasoli village.

Hindoli.—Town in Bundi State, Rájputána. Population (1881) under 5000. The town, occupying a picturesque position at the base of some low hills, contains the Sándoli Palace, built by Partab Singh in 1706, and an artificial lake one square mile in area.

Hindri (*Indaravati*, colloquially *Handri*, hence *Hindri*).—River in Madras Presidency, an affluent of the Tungabhadra. It rises in the village of Maddikerra, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, and, after a course of 90 miles, joins the Tungabhadra near the town of Karnúl, in lat. 15° 50′ N., and long. 78° 9′ E. During a great portion of the year

the stream is small; but owing to the heavy drainage from the neighbouring hills, it is liable to sudden floods, which render it temporarily unfordable. It is never navigable even by the smallest boats. Its waters are used for irrigation by *moths*, but there are no anicuts or systematic dams across its course. The Súnkesala Canal of the Madras Irrigation Company is carried across the bed of the Hindri at Karnúl town by a large aqueduct containing fourteen arches of 40 feet span.

Hindu Kush ('*Mountains of the Moon*').—Range of mountains in Asia, stretching from the Pámir table-land into north-eastern Afghánistán. The Hindu Kush range commences at the south-west corner of the Pámir table-land in Central Asia, in long. 73° 30′ N. In or near this region are the sources of the Oxus, the Yárkhand Daria, the Kunár, and the Gilgit rivers. The range is a westward continuation of the Himálayas, from which it is separated by the gorge of the Indus river. The Hindu Kush extends west as far as the spur which divides the Ghorband valley from that of the river Helmand, in long. 68° 30′, whence it continues west under the name of Koh-i-Baba. Within these limits its breadth, including the ramifications of the main range, is nearly 200 miles. The main range throws out four chief spurs or ridges. The Agrám pass is the starting-point of the Badakhshán ridge which divides the basin of the Oxus from the basin of the Kokcha. East of the Kháwak pass a spur running north and diverging north-east and north-west divides the basin of Kokcha from the basin of the Kunduz. This may be called the Kokcha ridge. From the Kháwak pass also a branch goes north-west to Kunduz, where it ends. This branch may be called the Kunduz ridge. Lastly, from the Kháwak pass a fourth spur is ended by the Kunduz river, and may be given the name of the Kháwak ridge. These four ridges lie between the watershed of the Oxus and the Kábul river. South of the latter no spurs are thrown out until the country east of Kashkár is reached, the main range up to this point draining directly into the Chitral river. The Kashkár ridge runs south, draining into the Kunár river: the ridge ends at the junction of the Kunár and Chigharsarái rivers. To the east of Derband a spur starts out as far as lat. 35° 20′, where it splits into three fresh spurs, two of them ending at the Kábul river. The third of the subsidiary spurs divides the basin of the Alingár from that of the Alíshang, and may be called the Káfiristán ridge. At the head of the valley of the Ghorband the Hindu Kush sends out a spur, the ramifications of which, under various names, stretch throughout eastern Afghánistán and eastern Baluchistán to the Indus, and as far even as the sea at Karáchí.

Passes.—The Hindu Kush is crossed by the following passes, going from east to west—the Karambar or Ishkamán, the Darkot, the Baroghil (at the eastern end of the range, elevation about 12,000 feet),

the Yur, the Vost, the Nuksán, the Kharteza, the Dora, and in the extreme west of the main range the Bamián or Irak Pass, a great trade route into India from Central Asia. These passes lead from Chitral into Wakhán and Badakhshán. Of the Káfiristán passes little is known. The Kháwák Pass (13,200 feet) is the most important of the routes between Badakhshán and Káfiristán. From Deh-i-Parian in the Pangsher valley a pass leads by Anjúman to Badakhshán. The other principal passes are—the Thal, the Kháwák, the Bazárak, the Shatpal, the Parwán, the Sarálang, the Káoshán, the Gwálián, the Gwazgar, the Chárdar, the Gholáláy, the Faríngal, and the Ghorband. Most of the passes are not difficult. Some are practicable for *káfilas* or caravans of laden carts. On some, snow lies for but three months in the year. Others are covered by perpetual snow. These are impracticable for laden animals, but foot-passengers slide over and down them on leathern aprons.

Geology.—According to Lord, the geological structure of the range is a core of granite of beautiful appearance, the felspar purely white, the hornblende black and glossy. On each side of the granite are deep strata of slate, gneiss, chlorite, carbonate of lime, quartz; and, exterior to these, secondary limestone and fossiliferous sandstone. The range is thought to be rich in the precious metals. In winter the streams are shrunk to small dimensions; but in the summer torrents of water, let loose from their imprisonment among the glaciers, carry down tons of soil among their muddy waters. Many of the torrents are impregnated with gold deposits, and it is believed that a scientific search might be well repaid. Gold-washing is only carried on in winter, and by a small number of workers. The best gold found has been assayed at 20 carats fine.

Ethnology and Religion.—As in almost all parts of the mountain region of Central Asia, the inhabitants of the Hindu Kush are of mixed races, languages, and religions, and possess widely different political and domestic institutions. The valleys and gorges, many of them extremely fertile, contain the great majority of the inhabitants, but some of the cave-dwellings of the mountaineers called forth the admiration of Marco Polo. The communities in the valleys and gorges average from 200 to 4000 people, either following the caste system and ritual of an Indian village, or maintaining an attitude of independence and republicanism towards neighbouring tribes and races. The chief races have been roughly, and not without disagreement of opinion, called Dards and Shins, the latter being the original conquerors of the region. The chief tribes are—the Kolis, Yeshkuns, Torwaliks, Doms, Afgháns, Bushkariks, Shiáh Posh (in the unknown country of Káfiristán), Nímchas, Chilásis, Chitrális, Baltis, Brushas, and Brokpas. The terms Dard and Dardistán have been applied by Dr. Leitner

to several of these tribes and the valleys they inhabit. The name Shin is applied to the old Bráhmanical and Buddhistical dwellers of the country. The principal religion at the present time is an easy-going species of Muhammadanism, said to have been introduced in the course of the 14th century, and particularly noted by Marco Polo. In a few places, notably Wákhán, the worship of fire is supposed to have been practised; and in Wákhán have been found many towers and structures such as are built elsewhere by the followers of Zoroaster. Each mountain village, however, retains a trace of ancient idolatry in the sacred stone set up, in one form or another, in almost every hamlet. An oath sworn over this stone is held to be absolutely binding. Mullas from Swát and Boner proclaim the Sunní tenets through the valleys. Many of the inhabitants are Shiás; and although there is great intolerance where the sects are segregated, yet when Shiás and Sunnís live in the same valley, their tolerance extends even to intermarriage. A distinct sect, called Muglís or Maulais, are connected by Colonel H. Yule with the sect of the Assassins, and with the sect to which the Druses of the Lebanon belong. What is the origin, or what are the beliefs of the Muglís, it is difficult to discover. The sect have a saying, that 'a man should conceal his faith and his women.' They endeavour to do both; but they are known to reject the idea of a future state, and to believe in the transmigration of souls. They hold Sunní and Shiá Muhammadans in contempt alike: the Sunní is a dog and the Shiá an ass. They revere the Kalam-i-Pir, a Persian work, only shown to men of the Muglí faith, instead of the Kurán. They drink wine, and their spiritual guides do not profess celibacy. The Persian account of the sect, is that it was founded in A.D. 1496 by Mír Shúms-ú-dín, who in that year came to Kashmír out of Irak. The followers of Shúms-ú-dín took the name of Núr Buksh, or *illuminati*. The Muglí or Núr Buksh tenets prevail in Baltistán.

General Characteristics.—Until recently, information about the Hindu Kush, and the entire mountain system of which it forms a part, has been extremely defective. But the inaccurate narratives of Moorcroft, Vigne, and comparatively modern travellers, as well as of the less modern Venetian, Ser Marco Polo, have been amplified, corrected, and partly superseded by the investigations of Sir Douglas Forsyth's mission to Yárkhand in 1873, and by the works of Mr. Drew, Mr. Shaw, Dr. Leitner, Major Biddulph, and others. The term 'Hindu Kush' is said by Sir A. Burnes to be unknown to the Afgháns; but it is admitted by the same writer that there is a particular peak, and also a pass, bearing the name. Other writers identify the word 'Kush' with the *Gaukasus* of Pliny, and call the mountains stretching from the Himálayas on the one hand, to the Paropamisan mountains on the other, by the name of the

Indian Caucasus. Little is known of the heights to be found in the range of the Hindu Kush. The maximum elevation of the range is said to be 20,000 feet, and its highest points to lie among the peaks of the Koh-i-Baba, or Hindu Kush proper, between Kábul and Bamián. There is no peak near the British border of a greater height than 16,000 feet; but elevations up to 19,000 feet have been taken from levels in Kashmír territory. The slopes of the Hindu Kush are even
have paid homage and feudal service.

Hinganghát.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Wardhá District, Central Provinces; lying between 20° 17′ 30″ and 20° 48′ N. lat., and between 78° 34′ and 79° 16′ E. long. Area (1881), 721 square miles, with 1 town and 290 villages; number of houses, 25,188, of which 23,376 are occupied and 1812 unoccupied. Population, 110,595, namely, males 55,069, and females 55,526; average density of population, 153·4 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 380; occupied houses per square mile, 32·4; persons per occupied house, 4·7. Total adult agricultural population, 50,498, or 45·66 per cent. of the total sub-divisional population. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 8 acres per adult agriculturist. Of the total area of 721 square miles, 49 square miles are held rent-free, while 672 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 483 square miles are cultivated, 119 square miles are cultivable, and 70 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £15,688, or 1s. 0⅛d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rental paid by cultivators, £23,732, or 1s. 5⅓d. per cultivated acre. The *tahsíl* contained in
188... a cloak exacted from the male accompanying stations (*thánás*).
a rule are peaceful, but at most times carry arms. Many tribes are fond of dancing, music, and a kind of polo. In great portion of the region a form of slavery still exists. *Satí* was formerly not uncommon, but the practice has been obsolete for the last fifty years. [For a full account of the population of these hills and the adjacent valleys, see *Tribes of the Hindu Kush*, by Major J. Biddulph, Calcutta, 1880.]

Hindupatti.—Village in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 59′ 55″ N., long. 80° 8′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 621, namely, 352 Hindus and 269 Muhammadans. Forms part of a municipal union with TILHAR.

Hindupur.—*Táluk* in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Area, 481 miles. Population (1871) 87,763, or 182 persons to the square mile; (1881) 73,270, namely, 36,970 males and 36,300 females, dwelling in 100 villages containing 15,257 houses. In 1881, Hindus numbered 68,640; Muhammadans, 4596; and 'others,' 34. Kanarese is the language spoken. Chief products are grain, wheat, and castor-oil; minor products, *cholam*, cotton, and saffron. In 1883, the *táluk*

Bombay and elsewhere on their own account; but the greater number merely act as middlemen between the cultivators and the large merchants. The municipal committee have opened a large gravelled market-place and storage yard, with raised platforms, and scales for weighing the cotton. The town consists of old and new Hinganghát; the former, a straggling town, liable to be flooded by the river Waná; the latter, in which the better classes reside, laid out in broad streets and avenues. At the District school, English and vernacular are taught up to an advanced standard. The girls' school has hitherto proved unsuccessful. Hinganghát contains a *tahsíl* office; a furnished travellers' bungalow; a large *sarái*, where travellers may halt for three days free of charge; and a dispensary, with buildings after the standard plan. The Wardhá Valley State Railway, which runs from Wardhá town to the Warorá coal-field in Chándá District, has a station at Hinganghát town.

Hingláјgarh.—Hill fort in Indore, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 40′ N., and long. 75° 50′ E. It is surrounded by a ravine 200 feet deep and 250 wide, with perpendicular sides, from the edges of which the walls arise. The only communications are by three causeways across the chasm, each leading to one of the three gates. The fort, situated in Holkar's dominions, was long considered by the natives impregnable, but it was stormed on the 3rd July 1804 by a British detachment under Major Sinclair, with little loss. Distant from Indore 130 miles north.

Hingní.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; 16 miles north-east of Wardhá town. Lat. 20° 55′ N., long. 78° 45′ E. Population (1881) 2157, chiefly weavers and cultivators. Founded about 160 years ago by Raghunáth Panth Subáhdár, grandfather of the present *málguzár*. A large masonry fort, two temples, two large houses, and twenty-one wells still attest the founder's energy. During the Pindárí disturbances, the *málguzár* held the fort with 200 followers. An annual fair takes place on the second day of the *Holi* festival; and a market is held every week. Hingní has a Government village school.

Hingoli.—Town in Parbhani Sub-division, the Nizám's Dominions, Haidarábád (Hyderábád), Deccan; situated in lat. 19° 43′ N., and long. 77° 11′ E., on the route from Haidarábád to Akola, 185 miles north-west of the former and 72 miles south of the latter. Population (1881) 14,804. One of the stations of the Haidarábád Subsidiary Force. Hingoli is about twenty miles from the Berár frontier. It is a great cotton mart. In 1833, Captain Sleeman captured many of the Deccan *thags* here. Fourteen miles to the south-west, in the village of Hundah, are the ruins of a huge temple dedicated to Mahádeo. Distance from Sikandarábád (Secunderábád), 190 miles north-west.

Hingona.—Village in Gwalior territory, Central India; situated on the left bank of the river Kuwári, in lat. 26° 32′ N., and long. 77° 58′ E., on the route from Agra to the fort of Gwalior, 47 miles south of the former and 23 north-west of the latter. At Hingona, in the end of December 1843, the British army under Sir Hugh Gough, accompanied by Lord Ellenborough, remained encamped some days during the abortive negotiations previous to the battle of Mahárájpur.

Hírápur.—Petty State or guaranteed thakurate under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. Population (1881) 963. The chief, Ráo Chhatar Singh, receives through the Political Agent the following pecuniary allowances in lieu of rights over land:—From Holkar, £333; from Sindhia, £291; from Bhopál, £20; total, £644. He holds Hírápur and Ahírwás on an *istimrári* rent of £60. He is also a political pensioner of the British Government, from which he receives £218 a year.

Hirdenagar. — Village in Mandlá District, Central Provinces; founded by Rájá Hirde Sháh about 1644. An annual fair is held on the banks of the Banjar, and considerable trade is done.

Hirehal (*Hiraholu*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 0′ 30″ N., long. 76° 54′ E.; 12 miles south of Bellary, on the Bangalore road. Population (1881) 522. Centre of a brass industry. Ruins of an old fort.

Hirekal (or *Hirikal-gudda*).—Range of hills in the central plateau of Mysore State, at the junction of the Districts of Túmkúr, Hassan, and Kadúr. A District forest has been formed. One of the hills contains a temple to Tirupati, and on another Haidar Alí attempted to found a new city, Nayapuri, but failed owing to the unhealthiness of the place.

Hiremagalúr ('*Elder Daughter's Town*').—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State; one mile south-east of Chikmagalúr. Population (1881) 2053, chiefly composed of Srí Vaishnav Bráhmans. The mythical scene of a 'serpent sacrifice,' commemorated by a spear-headed stone pillar, now regarded as efficacious in cases of snake-bite. Inscriptions have been found dating back to the 11th century. There are several old temples.

Hiriyúr.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Area, 806 square miles. Population (1871) 62,607; (1881) 40,305, namely, 39,182 Hindus, 1103 Muhammadans, and 20 Christians; land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £5015. The soil of the *táluk* is barren and stony, and in great need of irrigation. Iron is smelted, some cotton is grown, and glass bracelets are manufactured. Cost of administration (1882), £1285; number of criminal courts, 1; number of police stations (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 72 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 168.

Hiriyúr ('*Great Town*').—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore

State, on the right bank of the Vedavati river, and at the bifurcation of the high-road from Bangalore, which here branches off to Bellary and to Chitaldrúg. Lat. 13° 57′ N., long. 76° 39′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2270. Founded in the 16th century, it suffered much during the wars between Haidar Alí and the Maráthás. On account of its unhealthiness, it has been proposed to change the site to the opposite bank of the river; but the inhabitants are unwilling to desert their old temples. Hiriyúr is the head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Hirode (or French Rocks).—Village and formerly a military station in Mysore District, Mysore State; 2882 feet above the sea, and 4 miles north of Seringapatam. Lat. 12° 31′ N., long. 76° 45′ E. Population (1881) 3041. Hirode derives its name of 'French Rocks' from being the place where the French soldiers in the service of Haidar and Tipú were stationed. No troops are now quartered in the cantonments, which are distant about 2½ miles from the railway station. Hirode was abandoned as a military station in December 1882, when the Mahárájá of Mysore took over the administration of his State.

Hisámpur.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; situated in the south-east corner of the District. Bounded on the north by Fatehpur *parganá*; on the east by Gonda District; on the south and west by Bara Banki District. One of the oldest *parganás* in the District, taking its name from a village founded by some Ansáris in honour of Hisám-ul-hak, who is said to have been one of the comrades of the Musalmán invader Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, and to have perished with him in battle. At the time of this invasion, the country was in the hands of the Bhars, who seem to have maintained their power for several centuries subsequent to that event. The Ansáris, an Arab tribe, appear to have been the first permanent Muhammadan settlers. The date of their arrival was probably 1226 A.D., when Nasír-ud-dín Muhammad brought Oudh into subjection. They occupied Hisámpur, Pachambar, and Tawakulpur, and increased their possessions until they had acquired about 250 villages. The Bhars, however, still held their ground; and in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, the ancestor of the Jarwál Sayyids found great difficulty in obtaining possession of the *jágír* that had been bestowed upon him. The Sayyids came originally from Persia to Lahore, whence they found their way to Delhi and Bara Banki. The Ansáris passed away, and their possessions seem to have fallen into the hands of the Sayyids, who at the commencement of the present century were in possession of 276 villages, of which 157 had been acquired by purchase. In their turn, however, they had to give way before the Kalháns Rájputs of Chhedwárá, who within the last fifty years have acquired 112 villages in Hisámpur. The Raikwárs hold 52 villages in the north of the *parganá*. A large unimpaired

ancestral estate is the *iláka* of Dubhápur, which was conferred on an ancient *kázi* who was made *kanúngo* of the *parganá*, and whose descendants still hold the office as well as the property. The whole *parganá* lies low, and its general appearance supports the tradition that in former ages it was subject to fluvial action, as the Gogra retreated westward and southward. The ground rises slightly towards the eastern boundary. Area, 302 square miles, of which 155 are under the plough; barren and waste land, 33 per cent. of total area. Government land revenue, £14,958; average rate on cultivated area, 3s. 1¼d. per acre; on assessed area, 2s. 10½d. per acre; on total area, 1s. 7d. per acre. Population (1869) 129,591; (1881) 144,238, namely, males 75,490, and females 68,748. Three main lines of road intersect the *parganá*. Principal markets, Jarwál and Khutgaghát; minor *bázárs* at Sangána, Kurásar, Kotwá, and Patupur. Well-frequented weekly cattle market at Gandhára. Government schools in 8 villages. District post-offices at Kurásar and Jarwál. *Tahsíli* offices, Government dispensary, police station, post-office, and sub-registrar's office at Kaisarganj.

... past Rangoon town, whence to its mouth it is universally known as the Rangoon river. Under the name of the Myit-ma-ka, it rises in the marshy ground east of, but close to, Prome; and flowing over a sandy and muddy bed between low and ill-defined banks, enters the In-ma Lake as the Zay, thence it continues its southward course as the Myit-ma-ka, and, traversing Henzada District east of and almost parallel to the Irawadi, enters Rangoon District at Myit-kyo. In the north, the Hlaing is separated from the Irawadi by a line of low hills covered with *in* forest; below Myan-aung, numerous creeks connect it with that river. It is navigable from San-ywe, where it receives the Thún-ze from the east to Ta-pun, the water being never less than 3 feet deep. The channel here in many places is choked by jungle. Small boats can ascend as far as In-ma. Owing to numerous shoals, the Hlaing is impracticable for steamers above San-ywe, where its width is 180 yards, its depth 4 feet, and the tidal rise 2½ feet. The Baw-lay leaves it in lat. 17° 15′ N., and rejoins it again as the Kúkko immediately north of lat. 17° N. The Hlaing here widens considerably. Three miles below the junction of the Hlaing and the Baw-lay the stream suddenly spreads out to a breadth of several miles, and its course is divided by two islands into three channels, of which the eastern is the deepest, and the one always used by river steamers reaching the Irawadi through the Baw-lay creek during the rains. The western channel is shallow. The central one is still shallower, and obstructed by sandbanks. Just above Rangoon, the Hlaing is joined by the Pan-hlaing from the westward, and, sweeping round the town to the east, receives the Pegu and Pu-zun-daung, when it turns north again and flows into the Gulf of Martaban, in lat. 16° 28′ N., and long. 96° 20′ E.,

through a mouth 3 miles broad. The land at the entrance is low, and fringed with dense mangrove forest. The spring tides rise 21 feet, and neaps 13 feet. The Hlaing is navigable to Rangoon by large ships; but the passage is winding and difficult, and the Hastings' Shoal, formed just above the united mouths of the Pegu and Pu-zun-daung rivers, can be crossed by vessels of over six feet draught only at flood tide. During the rains, the river is navigable for 30 miles above Rangoon by ships of 500 tons burthen. The plains of the Hlaing valley form a swamp 1200 square miles in extent. More than one plan for their reclamation has been proposed.

Hlaing-bwe.—River in British Burma. The Hlaing-bwe rises in the northern portion of the Dawna range, and, flowing southward for about 120 miles, unites with the Haung-tharaw at Gyaing, where it has a breadth of 400 yards; at its junction with the Da-gyaing, 42 miles above Gyaing, in lat. 16° 55′ N., and long. 98° 2′ E., it is only 70 yards wide during the rains. The two streams, under the name of the Gyaing river, fall into the Salwín at Maulmain. During the rains the water is muddy, and the current strong and rapid; in the dry season, when the spring tides extend a distance of 70 miles, boats of 500 baskets burden can go up as far as Hlaing-bwe. About 200 yards below the village of Hlaing-bwe, a reef of rocks, which can only be passed at the highest tides, stretches across the river. As far as the mouth of the Da-gyaing, the banks are high and well-defined; farther down, they become low and bordered with scrub forest. The usual halting-places on the way up are Kha-zang, 26 miles from Gyaing, and, in the wet weather, Khyaung-wa, 16 miles higher up.

Hmaw-bi (*Hmaw-bhee*).—Sub-division of Hanthawadi District, British Burma; lies westward of the Pegu Yomas, in Pegu Division. The Irawadi Valley (State) Railway from Rangoon to Prome crosses Hmaw-bi from south to north, and occupies the great northern military road from Hmaw-bi station. The principal river in the Sub-division is the Hlaing, which, joined by the Pan-hlaing in the south, forms the Rangoon river. In the rains the Hlaing is navigable by steamers for some distance, by boats all the year round as high up as the mouth of the Ye-nek. The Sub-division comprises 15 revenue circles. In 1876 the population was 70,433, and the gross revenue £33,742. Population (1881) 94,155; gross revenue, £44,787.

Hmaw-bi (*Hmaw-bhee*).—Township in Hmaw-bi Sub-division, Rangoon District, British Burma; extends along the western slopes of the Pegu Yomas, beyond the Hlaing river to the Pan-hlaing, and east and south-east into the Pegu valley. The township consists of three portions, each differing from the others:—(*a*) West of the Hlaing, the country is flat, and traversed by numerous inter-communicating

tidal creeks, which every second or third year, since the construction of the Irawadi embankments, flood the fields and destroy the crops. There is but little cultivation, and the country is to a great extent covered with open forest and elephant grass. (*b*) In the tract north of Rangoon, the country consists of undulating ground, which, towards the north-east, rises into hills clothed with trees; the southern parts have been denuded of forest for the supply of fuel to Rangoon. The soil is poor, but rice is extensively grown. (*c*) East of Rangoon, the country is open, level, and highly cultivated; the soil is rich and productive, but is becoming exhausted, as the fields are allowed no rest, and rotation of crops is not practised. In 1876 the population was 50,487, and the gross revenue £27,259. The total area under cultivation in that year was 97,919 acres. Population (1881) 63,585; total area under cultivation, 119,227 acres, chiefly rice; gross revenue, £31,795. The township is traversed by the Irawadi Valley (State) Railway, with stations at Thamaing, Hlaw-ga, and Hmaw-bi. The head-quarters of the township are at Lein-gún.

have recently been removed to Tiptur.

Honáwar.—Sub-division of North Kanara District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 446 square miles; contains 2 towns and 128 villages. Population (1881) 85,625, or 42,439 males and 43,186 females; number of houses, 12,588. Hindus numbered 74,158; Muhammadans, 7443; 'others,' 4024. Since 1872, the population has increased by 2758. Mysore bounds the *táluk* on the east, while its western shore is washed by the Arabian Sea. The Gersoppa river intersects the country, flowing from east to west. The famous Gersoppa Falls are 36 miles south-east of Honáwar town. About one-third of the *táluk* has been surveyed and settled. The incidence of the assessment varies from £1 to £1, 4s. per acre in the case of garden lands; from 11s. to 13s. in the case of rice land; and from 1s. to 1s. 6d. in the case of dry crop land. Communications are easy. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 16. Land revenue, £15,972.

Honáwar (*Honore*).—Seaport, municipality, and chief town of the Sub-division of Honáwar, in North Kanara District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 29′ E., 50 miles south-east of Kárwár, on the north of an extensive estuary or inlet of the sea, forming an expanse of salt water, which at its south-eastern extremity receives the Gersoppa or Shiráwati, a considerable river flowing from beyond the Western Gháts. Population (1872) 5191, (1881) 6658, of whom 5252 were Hindus, 868 Christians, and 538 Muhammadans. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873–74—exports, £30,032; imports, £21,499.

For the year 1880–81, the value of the exports was £696,834, and the value of the imports £249,592. Honáwar has long possessed a coasting trade of importance, but the trade has grown largely of recent years. The town is mentioned by Abulfeda (1273–1331); and shortly afterwards (1342) is described by Ibn Batuta as rich and well governed, with 23 schools for boys and 13 for girls. At the beginning of the 16th century, it is said to have exported much rice, and to have been frequented by shipping. In 1505, the Portuguese built a fort at Honáwar; and two years later, in consequence of a dispute with the King of Viziápur, they attacked and burnt the town. Frederick (1563–81) calls 'Onor' a fort of the Portuguese; and in 1623, De la Valle found it a small place, but still in the hands of the Portuguese. On the decay of the Portuguese power in India, Honáwar was acquired by the sovereigns of Bednúr; and on the conquest of Bednúr by Haidar Alí, this town also submitted to him. In 1783 it was taken by assault by a British force despatched from Bombay, under the command of General Matthews; and in 1784 was successfully defended by Captain Torriano against Tipú Sultán, to whom, however, in the same year, it was ceded by the treaty of Mangalore. On the overthrow of Tipú in 1799, it again came into the possession of the British. Visitors to the celebrated falls of Gersoppa halt at Honáwar to procure boats to take them up the river 18 miles, to the village of Gersoppa. From Gersoppa the journey to the falls, 18 miles, is made by road. The town itself lies about 2 miles from the coast at the mouth of the Gersoppa river, which, with a dangerous bar and an entrance channel about 300 feet broad, expands into a lake 5 miles long, and 1 to 2 miles broad. In the lake are 5 islands, the largest 3 miles long, covered with palm trees. A ship may anchor in the road, with the flagstaff of Honáwar bearing east by north, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the shore in 5 to 6 fathoms soft ground.

Hongal (*Bail Hongal*).—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 48′ N., long. 74° 54′ E. Population (1872) 9001, (1881) 7806. There are manufactures of coarse cotton cloth and articles of native apparel, some of which are sold in the neighbouring markets, and the remainder exported *viâ* Belgáum to the Konkán. Hongal is built on rising ground on the eastern side of a fine tank from which is drawn the main water-supply of the inhabitants. The prefix 'Bail' refers to the fact of the town being built in an open black-soil country. The market is celebrated for the superior class of bullocks brought to it for sale. A large annual fair is held, at which wrestlers from the surrounding country assemble.

Honnali.—*Táluk* and town of Shimoga District, Mysore State.—*See* HONALLI.

Honnu-hole (or *Suvarnávati*, both meaning 'Golden Stream').—A tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, which runs through the south-east corner of Mysore District, Mysore State, and joins the Káveri just within the Madras District of Coimbatore. The Honnu-hole valley is very fertile, the stream being dammed in its short course by 3 permanent anicuts, as well as by many temporary structures, yielding a yearly revenue of more than £3800.

Hooghly.—River, District, Sub-division, and town, Bengal.—*See* HUGLI.

Horsleykonda (or *Yenugu Mallama Konda*).—Mountain in Kadapa (Cuddapah) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 39′ 30″ N., long. 78° 28′ E.; about 4000 feet above sea-level. The slopes are well wooded.

Hosangadi (Hassangadi, '*New Bázár*,' Kanarese; also called *Haidargarh*).—A *ghát* or pass in South Kanara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 40′ N., long. 75° 1′ E. On the route between Bednúr, the seat of the Nagar Government, and the Malabár coast, and much used in the campaigns with Tipú Sultán. Practicable for carts as far as Sankarnáráyan, the head of the water communication with the coast.

Hosdrúg (also called *Pudia Kot*, or 'New Fort').—Town in South Kanara District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 12° 18′ 29″ N., and long. 75° 9′ 15″ E., 2 miles from the sea, and 42 miles from Cannanore. Population (1881) not returned in the Census, and therefore presumably under 5000. A sub-divisional station with sub-magistrate's court, excellent bungalow, and ruins of a magnificent fort.

Hosdurga. — *Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Area, 510 square miles. In 1872 the population was 60,820, and the land revenue, £6884. Population (1881) 38,022, namely, 37,081 Hindus, 855 Muhammadans, 2 Christians, and 184 Jains; land revenue (1881-82), exclusive of water rates, £5019. Crops—*cholá*, *ragi*, and a little cotton. Iron is smelted, and there are workers in brass.

Hosdurga.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State; 30 miles south by west of Chitaldrúg. Lat. 13° 48′ 10″ N., long. 76° 20′ E. Population (1881) 1648. Called after a hill fort said to have been erected in 1675, at the northern base of which the present *pete* or village was added in 1708. Head-quarters of the Hosdurga *táluk*.

Hoshangábád.—District in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) Division of the Chief-Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 40′ and 22° 59′ N. lat., and between 76° 38′ 30″ and 78° 45′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, which separates it from the territories of Bhopál, Sindhia, and Holkar; on the east by the Dudhi river, dividing it from Narsinghpur District; on the south by the Districts of Western Berár, Betúl, and Chhind-

wárá; and on the west by Nimár. Area, 4437 square miles. Population (1881) 488,787. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at HOSHANGABAD TOWN, which is also the most populous place.

Physical Aspects.—Hoshangábád may be generally described as a valley of varying breadth, extending for 150 miles between the river Narbadá (Nerbudda) and the Sátpura Mountains. The soil consists chiefly of black basaltic alluvium, often more than 20 feet deep; but along the banks of the Narbadá the fertility of the land compensates for the tameness of the scenery. As far west as Handiá, only an isolated rock breaks at intervals the monotony of the plain. Rich crops of wheat clothe the gentle undulations. At places near the river some woodland tract is shady with young teak trees; but except in the poor sandy soil, not worth cultivating, little or no jungle has been suffered to remain. Beyond Handiá, the aspect of the country changes. Low stony hills and broken ridges cut up the level ground, while the Vindhyas from the north and the Sátpuras from the south-west throw out jutting spurs and ranges, along the base of which lie tracts of red earth and rock. Much of the surface here is covered by an alluvial cotton-soil, for the most part very thin; so that a few miles to the west of Hardá, blocks of granite for the railway works were quarried from a depth of only 6 or 8 feet. In the wilder country to the west of the District, considerable regions are overgrown with jungle. On the south, however, appears the most striking contrast with the champaign country along the Narbadá. The lofty range which shuts in the valley is remarkable for mountain scenery, surpassing in its picturesque irregularity the Vindhyan chain in the north—a succession of cliffs and abysses. Everywhere huge masses of sandstone stand boldly out, with scarped faces of rock many hundred feet high.

Amid these precipices rise numberless little streams, many of them perennial. Winding through deep glens, and working their way from the mountain spurs, they flow across the plain between sandy banks covered with low jungle, till they swell the waters of the Narbadá. Such are the Dudhi, Anjan, Denwá, Ganjál, and Moran; the last of which contains a vein of indifferent coal. Such, too, is the Táwa, so interesting to the geologist. 'At its mouth, the Bijáwar limestone is seen presenting a peculiar structure; the alternating bands of siliceous and calcareous minerals, instead of being plane, are concentric around nuclei of quartz, many of these concentric masses being of great size. A little farther south there is an immense mass of hard quartzose breccia, similar to that seen north of the river north-west of Chándgarh, composed of purple jasper-like rock, with enclosed angular fragments of quartzite; upon this rest Vindhyan shales, sandy as usual, and passing upwards into the typical quartzite sandstone, which forms hills west of

the stream. Higher up, the Táwa trap comes in; and farther on still, there is a patch of granitoid rock.' None of the above-named streams, however, are of any great importance; and the boundary rivers, the Narbadá and the Tápti, are the only considerable waters in Hoshangábád. At Chárwá, in the west of the District, a dense low forest extends over a large region; but by far the finest timber is found in the reserved tracts at Borí and Denwá, which were made over to Hoshangábád from the District of Chhindwárá in 1865, and are rich in teak and *sál*. Good building stone is raised from eighteen quarries in the District.

History.—Little is known of the history of Hoshangábád prior to the Maráthá invasion. The four Gond Rájás who hold the eastern portion of the District derive their title from the Rájás of Mandlá. The central region was subject directly or indirectly to the Gond power at Deogarh; and in the extreme west, the Gond Rájá of Makrái apparently exercised an extensive independent jurisdiction. In the time of Akbar, Handiá was the head-quarters of a *sarkár* or District, and was occupied by Mughal troops; Seoní was attached to a Province of Bhopál, and Hoshangábád is not mentioned at all. In all probability the eastern part of the District maintained a rude independence, the imperial power at Delhi not caring to wrest this rugged region from the wild Gond tribes who inhabited it. About 1720 A.D., Dost Muhammad, the founder of the Bhopál family, took the town of Hoshangábád, and annexed a considerable territory with it, stretching from Seoní to the Táwa, or even as far as Sohágpur. In 1742, the Peshwá, Bálájí Bájí Ráo, passed up the valley on his way to attack Mandlá, and seized the opportunity to subdue the Handiá *parganás*, which he succeeded in retaining in his possession. Eight years later, Raghují Bhonsla, the Maráthá Rájá of Nágpur, overran the whole range of hills from Gáwilgarh to Mahádeo, and reduced the country east of Handiá and south of the Narbadá, except the portion held by Bhopál.

Hitherto the rival dynasties of Nágpur and Bhopál had not come into conflict, and the Gond Rájás in the east still maintained their independence. In 1795, however, a contest was begun by the Bhonslas, which lasted with few intermissions for more than twenty years, and did not cease till it had spread desolation over the face of this fertile valley. The first achievement was that of Bení Singh Subahdár, one of Raghují's officers, who captured the town and fort of Hoshangábád, after a sturdy resistance from the Bhopál troops. In 1802, however, the Bhonslas lost by an intrigue what it had cost them a two months' siege to gain. The *kiládár* or governor was so alarmed by the representations of the Bhopál party, that on the approach of Wazír Muhammad, then the virtual ruler of Bhopál, he gave up the place without striking a blow in its defence. Encouraged by this success,

and by the occupation of Seoní, Wazír Muhammad proceeded to overrun all the Sohágpur *pargand*, and to lay siege to the fort of Sohágpur itself. Here his good fortune deserted him. The fort was relieved by a force from Seoní Chhapárá, which defeated Wazír Muhammad with heavy loss. He was hotly pursued as far as Hoshangábád; and, making a stand outside the town, his horse was killed under him. A rude stone figure of a horse still marks the spot. In this emergency, Wazír Muhammad mounted his celebrated tailless charger, Pankhráj (whence his name of Bándá Ghoreká Sawár), and escaped by leaping him over the battlement of the fort. The Nágpur army, however, failed in their attack upon the fort, and, after vainly besieging it, contented themselves with burning the town. In 1809, Hoshangábád was again assailed by a Nágpur force. The garrison held out for three months; but finding their communications with Bhopál cut off, and a battery erected against them on the north side of the river, they surrendered. Overcome by these disasters, Wazír Muhammad called in the Pindárí freebooters to his help; and till they were finally extirpated in 1817, the whole of this fertile region became a prey to ravage and massacre. Large tracts of country were laid entirely waste; and everywhere throughout the District the fruits of long years of industry were destroyed and dispersed. Under the order which the British Government has restored, prosperity is gradually returning.

In 1818, that part of the District which was held by Nágpur was ceded under an agreement, subsequently confirmed by the treaty of 1826. In 1844, the region of Hardá Handiá was made over by Sindhia at an estimated value of £14,000, in part payment of the Gwalior contingent; and by the treaty of 1860, it was permanently transferred, and became British territory. The Mutiny of 1857 failed to disturb English authority in Hoshangábád. There was some trouble with the police at Hardá; a petty chief rebelled in the Mahádeo Hills; and Tántia Topí crossed the valley in 1858.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Hoshangábád at 440,433, and a regular Census in 1872 disclosed 450,218 persons, exclusive of the attached feudatory State of MAKRAI. In 1881, the population, also exclusive of Makrái, was returned at 488,787, being an increase of 38,569, or 8·56 per cent., during the nine years since 1872. The results disclosed by the Census of 1881 may be thus briefly summarized:—Area, 4437 square miles; towns and villages, 1536; number of houses, 112,521, of which 102,863 are occupied and 9658 unoccupied. Total population, 488,787, namely, males 252,493, and females 236,294; average density of population, 110 per square mile; towns and villages, ·35 per square mile; persons per town or village, 318; houses per square mile, 23·18; inmates per occupied house, 4·75. Classified according to sex and age,

there were 82,947 boys and 79,402 girls below 12 years of age; males above 12 years of age numbered 169,546, and females 156,892. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 390,650, or 79·9 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 22,355, or 4·5 per cent.; Kábírpanthís, 3372; Jains, 1725; Sikhs, 4; Satnámís, 9; Pársís, 41; Jews, 5; Christians, 783; tribes still professing aboriginal faiths, 69,840, or 14·3 per cent.; and 'others,' 3. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes, including both Hindus and non-Hindus, are Gonds, 61,009 in 1881; Kúrkús, 28,458; Bhils, 6604; Savars, 894; Kols, 375; and Kawárs, 97. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans in 1881 numbered 31,585, and Rájputs, 54,645; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of—Kurmís, 20,992; Lodhís, 7423; Kachhís, 8938; Ahírs, 14,717; Balahís, 24,345; Baniyás, 5713; Telís, 9186; Gújars, 22,270; Chamárs, 17,647; and other inferior castes. The Muhammadan population are divided according to sect into Sunnís, 21,160; Shiás, 571; Wahábís, 32; and 'others,' 592. The Christian population comprises 154 British born, 96 other Europeans, 63 Eurasians, 33 Indo-Portuguese, 337 natives, and 100 unspecified.

There are only four towns in Hoshangábád District with a population exceeding 5000, viz. HOSHANGABAD, the District headquarters, population (1881) 15,863; HARDA, 11,203; SOHAGPUR, 7027; and SEONI, 6998. Of the 1536 towns and villages comprising the District, 793 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 501 from two to five hundred, 184 from five hundred to a thousand, 45 from one to two thousand, 6 from two to three thousand, 3 from three to five thousand, and 4 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The four largest towns mentioned above, together with the smaller town of Babái (population, 3818), are the only municipalities in Hoshangábád; they have a total population within municipal limits of 44,919, or nearly 10 per cent. of the District population. As regards occupation, the male population are divided by the Census Report of 1881 into the following six main classes:—Class (1) Professional, including Government officials of every sort, and the learned professions, 6886; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 2698; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 5438; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 95,849; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans, 34,610; (6) industrial and non-productive, comprising general labourers, male children, and unspecified, 107,012.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4437 square miles, only 2533 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 1330 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 680 square miles as cultivable, and 523 square miles as uncultivable waste. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District. The rich black soil of the valley

throws up a rank abundance of weeds, which cannot be rooted up before the dry season; and consequently this soil is devoted almost entirely to cereals. These are raised without manure or irrigation; rotation of crops is not resorted to, nor is the land allowed to remain fallow. Only garden crops and sugar-cane are manured and watered. Since the American Civil War, cotton has been raised in increasing quantities on the higher soils. The approximate area under the different crops (including land twice cropped) is returned as follows:—Rice, 11,369 acres; wheat, 592,837; other food-grains, 268,902; oil-seeds, 58,216; sugar-cane, 649; cotton, 12,885; other fibres, 726; tobacco, 1344; vegetables, 2280; and miscellaneous, 5444 acres. The oxen bred in Hoshangábád are stout beasts, useful for heavy draught and for ploughing the deep black soil, but much inferior in pace and activity to the small Berár bullocks. Sheep and goats come principally from Bundelkhand. Agricultural stock (approximate)—cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 336,133; horses, 894; ponies, 7329; donkeys, 2822; sheep and goats, 21,705; pigs, 2176; carts, 21,678; ploughs, 31,959. The Census of 1881 showed a total of 2635 proprietors. The tenants numbered 94,478, of whom 15,641 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 25,819 were tenants-at-will or of unspecified status. The remaining tenants consisted chiefly of assistants in home cultivation, 50,213, or of sub-tenants or cultivators holding land on a produce-sharing tenure. Agricultural labourers, including field servants and herdsmen, numbered 46,572. The total adult agriculturists numbered 144,278, or 29·52 per cent. of the District population, the average proportion of cultivated and cultivable land being 10 acres for each adult agriculturist. Total Government revenue, including cesses and local rates levied on land, £46,315, or an average of 1s. 1½d. per cultivated acre; total rental paid by the cultivators, £133,073, or an average of 2s. 11⅞d. per cultivated acre.

In this District, as throughout the Narbadá valley, some estates have for generations belonged to petty chiefs, who have retained their ancestral domains through all the changes of times and dynasties down to the present day. Such are the Rájás of Fatehpur and Sobhápur, whose title dates back to the Gond princes of Mandlá. For many generations, also, the petty hill chiefs in the Mahádeo Hills maintained a semi-independence of the rulers of Deogarh and Nágpur. But in 1818, when they raised their clans in support of Apá Sáhib, they were thoroughly subdued by the British troops. The English agents, however, continued the policy of maintaining these *tálukdárs* in their rights; and upon the recommendation of Sir R. Temple, late Chief Commissioner, the Government formally confirmed them in this position—with the exception of the *zamíndár* of Ráikherí, whose lands were confiscated in consequence of his share in the rebellion of 1858.

The rent rates per acre for different crops were returned as follows in 1882-83:—Wheat, 3s. 3d.; rice, 3s. 7d.; inferior grain, 1s. 4¾d.; cotton, 3s. 10½d.; sugar-cane, 7s. 8¾d.; oil-seeds, 1s. 7¾d.; fibres, 1s. 6¾d.; and tobacco, 5s. 4d. per acre. The average produce per acre in lbs. was—wheat, 400; rice, 320; inferior grain, 440; cotton (cleaned), 26; sugar (*gúr*), 490; oil-seeds, 240; fibres, 180; and tobacco, 180 lbs. The ordinary prices of produce are as follow:—Wheat, 5s. 3d. a cwt.; cotton, 31s. a cwt.; refined sugar, 11s. a cwt. The wages per diem of skilled labour average 1s., of unskilled labour, 6d.

Commerce and Trade.—There are no manufactures of any note, and merely the ordinary handicrafts. The workers in brass have a local reputation. The coarser fabrics worn by the peasantry are still mainly supplied by the weavers of the District; although, since the demand for cotton in 1863-64 raised the price of the raw material, a large number of looms have ceased working. Hoshangábád does a considerable export trade in agricultural produce, receiving in return English piece-goods, spices, and cocoa-nuts from the west, salt from Bombay, and sugar by way of Mírzápur from the east. Owing to the opening of the railway, the trade of the District now tends to take the direction of Bombay.

The length of made roads in Hoshangábád is returned at 498 miles. The high-road to Bombay, which runs through the District from east to west, is only aligned in parts, and only partially embanked or drained. The line from Hoshangábád towards Betúl, which passes the railway station at Itársí, is the best road in the District. That from Hardá to Handiá, the old high-road from the Deccan to Agra in the days of the Mughals, is little better than a well-defined track; while the other roads in the District are merely fair-weather routes, of which those from Seoní and Hardá towards Betúl are perhaps the best. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway intersects the whole District from west to east, with stations at Bánkherí, Alakheri, Piparia, Sohágpur, Seoní, Bágrá, Rámpur, Hársi, Dularia, Dharmkundi, Pagdhál, Timarní, Hardá, Bhiringi, Khirkián, and Harsud. It crosses the Táwa by a viaduct at the opening of the gorge through which the river issues from the Sátpuras; and a short tunnel carries it under a projection of the hill close by. The Bhopál State Railway, which was opened for traffic in May 1882, crosses the District from north to south from Hoshangábád town to Itársí, where it joins the Great Indian Peninsula Railway system. Total length of railway communication, 175 miles. Besides roads and railways, the Narbadá, Táwa, Denwá, and Ganjál supply means of communication by water for 150 miles during part of the year.

Administration.—In 1861, Hoshangábád was formed into a separate

District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876–77, £69,842, of which the land revenue yielded £42,813. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £14,733. By 1882–83, the total revenue of the District had increased to £85,991, and the land revenue to £44,712. Total cost of officials and police of all kinds in 1882–83, £15,844. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 13; magistrates, 17. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 55 miles; average distance, 14 miles. Number of police, 621 men, costing £7568; being 1 policeman to about every 8 square miles and to every 779 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in the year 1882 was 118, of whom 8 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection in 1882 was 97, attended by 4495 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected indigenous schools, for which no returns are available. The Census Report of 1881 returned 5243 boys and 132 girls as under instruction, besides 13,442 males and 281 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District contained five municipalities in 1882—Hoshangábád, Seoní, Hardá, Sohágpur, and Babaí, with a total population of 44,919. Total municipal income, £7293, of which £6217 was derived from octroi and other taxes; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 9¼d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The District is generally free from violent alternations of temperature; hot winds are rare, and the nights during the sultry weather and rains are always cool. The cold weather is seldom severe. In 1882, the temperature in the shade at the civil station, Hoshangábád, was recorded as follows:—May, highest reading, 110·8° F., lowest 74°; July, highest reading 87·4°, lowest 72°; December, highest reading 84°, lowest 50°. The rainfall is exceedingly variable, ranging between the limits of 40 and 60 inches in the year, the average for the 25 years ending 1881 being 46·28 inches. In 1882 it was 58·17 inches, or 11·89 inches above the average. The winter rains, however, are very regular; and, according to a local tradition, there have been famines from too much rain, but never from drought. Owing to its position as a long valley between two great mountain ranges, Hoshangábád is subject to violent atmospheric influences; and the harvest is seldom gathered without hail-storms and thunder-showers. The prevailing diseases of the District are fevers and bowel complaints. In 1882, six charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 37,361 in-door and out-door patients. In 1882, the total registered deaths numbered 13,017, or 29·33 per thousand of the population. During the five previous years, the reported deaths per annum averaged 26·89 per thousand. [For further

information regarding Hoshangábád, see the *Settlement Report* of Mr. C. A. Elliott, the operations of which extended from April 1855 to November 1857, and from July 1859 to March 1866; also the *Gazetteer of the Central Provinces*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S.I., pp. 206-217 (Nágpur, 1870); and the *Annual Administration and Departmental Reports for the Central Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Hoshangábád.—North-eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 41′ and 22° 59′ N. lat., and between 76° 38′ and 78° 44′ E. long. Area (1881), 890 square miles, with 1 town and 353 villages; number of houses, 31,742. Total population, 152,182, namely, males 78,769, and females 73,413; average density per square mile, 171; number of persons per village, 430; persons per house, 4·8. The total adult agriculturists numbered 44,805, or 29·44 per cent. of the *tahsíl* attracted by the fertility of the soil and the advantages of irrigation. A tank with an embankment 2 miles long forms, when full, a sheet of water 10 miles in circumference. Two religious gatherings are held in the year, each attended by about 5000 persons. Hoskot was annexed to Mysore by Haidar Alí in 1761.

Hospet ('*New Town*').—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 15′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 26′ E., about 39 miles north-west of Bellary city. Population (1871) 10,005; (1881) 10,219. Hindus numbered 8868; Muhammadans, 1231; Christians, 60; and 'others,' 60. Number of houses, 2311. A *kasbá* town with a *tahsíldár's* and sub-magistrate's court, bungalows, school, dispensary, and 2 fine temples. The old fort has been levelled. Hospet is the Tarakeswar in Hugli District, and runs a short distance through the north of Howrah till it falls into the Dámodar at Ampta. Many small streams and watercourses intersect the District, the principal being the Saraswati, which takes its rise from the Húglí near Tribeni, and flows southwards through Howrah District till it falls into the Húglí at the village of Sankrel a few miles beyond the Botanical Gardens, where the river takes a sudden sweep to the south. The southern and south-western portion of the District is on a much lower level than the country to the north and east, and in this tract cultivation is only rendered possible by a network of Government and private embankments, which have to be maintained at a considerable annual expense. The Ulubáriá and Midnapur High Level Canal for both navigation and irrigation crosses the District from east to west, and affords direct water communication between Calcutta and Midnapur town; a regular steam service is maintained between the two places. Extensive schemes of land reclamation by the drainage of the numerous *jhíls* and marshes with which the District is studded have been under the consideration of Government for several years,

and are now in course of execution. The principal swamps are the Rájápur *jhíl*, the Bara Jálá, the Jonai Jálá, the Pánchla, and the Naluá Jálá. For draining these, three independent schemes were proposed. One of them, known as the Howrah scheme, embracing the tract between the Bálí *khál* on the north, and the Government Botanical Gardens to the south of Howrah town, is now being carried out at an estimated cost of £50,000. The estimate and plans for the Rájápur scheme, involving an expense of upwards of £120,000, have been sanctioned by Government, but the work has not yet (February 1885) been commenced. The Ampta scheme, involving an expenditure of about £35,000, has not yet been finally sanctioned. The three schemes embrace a total area to be drained of about 270 square miles, and have been undertaken under the provisions of Act vi. (B.C.). The drainage operations in Howrah District are interesting examples of large reclamation works beyond the means of the cultivators, or of individual landholders, which are only practicable for a combination of landed proprietors or capitalists, acting under the protection of the Act.

Population. — Howrah, with its two Sub-divisions, Howrah and Ulubáriá, contains an area of 476 square miles, and is by far the smallest District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. It derives its whole importance from the existence within its limits of the great metropolitan suburb of Howrah, and in revenue matters it still continues a portion of Húglí District. Howrah District contains 1486 villages besides Howrah town, with a total of 125,297 houses, of which 113,644 are occupied and 11,653 unoccupied. Total population (1881) 635,381, namely, males 316,479, and females 318,902. Average density of population, 1334 per square mile, or, excluding Howrah town, 1130 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 427; houses per square mile, 263, or, exclusive of Howrah town, 196; persons per occupied house, 5·6. Hindus numbered 500,870, or 78·8 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 132,118; Christians, 2051; Buddhists, 37; Brahmos, 6; Jains, 3; Jews, 13; Pársí, 1; and Santáls and other non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 282.

Among the higher Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 39,141; Rájputs, 1039; Káyasths, 15,849. Baniyás or traders were returned at 7107. The other castes numbering over 5000 are — Kaibarttá, the most numerous caste in the District, cultivators, fishermen, and labourers, 155,653; Bágdí, 54,943; Goálá, 17,317; Tior, 15,623; Tántí, 14,250; Pod, 14,138; Sadgop, 12,692; Telí, 11,998; Nápit, 11,460; Dhobí, 9324; Chandál, 9282; Jaliyá, 6467; Chamár, 5815; and Kumbhar, 5712. Caste-rejecting Hindus were returned at 15,337, of whom 15,284 were Vaishnavs. The Muhammadan population are thus divided according to sect — Sunnís, 128,405; Shiás, 2671;

and unspecified, 1042. Of the Christian population, 575 belong to the Church of England, 101 to the Church of Scotland, 623 are Roman Catholics, 209 are Baptists, 398 are returned simply as Protestants, and the remainder belong to other Christian denominations. As regards race, the Christians of the District comprise 341 British-born Europeans, 614 other Europeans, 10 Americans, 2 Australians, 4 Africans, 702 Eurasians, 340 natives of India, and 38 other Asiatics.

With the exception of the town and municipality of Howrah, which has a population of 105,206, or 16·6 per cent. of the whole population, no place in the District contains so many as five thousand inhabitants. Of its 1486 villages in 1881, 639 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 551 between two hundred and five hundred; 212 between five hundred and a thousand; 65 between one thousand and two thousand; 12 between two thousand and three thousand; and 7 between three thousand and five thousand. As regards occupation, the male population were thus classified in the Census Report—(1) Professional class, including Government officials of all kinds, and the learned professions, 9265; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 11,101; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 17,213; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 108,640; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 40,296; (6) indefinite and non-productive, comprising general labourers, male children, and unspecified, 129,964.

Agriculture.—The chief agricultural products are rice, mustard, oil-seeds, tobacco, indigo, ginger, hemp, jute, betel-nuts and leaves, and cocoa-nuts. Silkworms are reared in some parts of the District. Manufactures are entirely confined to the town of HOWRAH and its immediate suburbs. The principal main lines of road are—(1) From Salkhia to the Bálí *khál*, 6 miles, whence it is continued to opposite Palta, where the Grand Trunk road crosses the Húglí. It is metalled and bridged throughout, and carries a very considerable traffic. (2) The old road from Howrah to Benares, 8 miles to Kálípur. This is still the main road for pedestrians to and from the Upper Provinces, but is not available for wheeled traffic, as it crosses the Dámodar twice beyond the limits of Howrah District, and is unbridged. (3) Howrah to Jagatballabhpur, an unmetalled road, 17 miles in length; and (4) Jagatballabhpur to Ampta, also unmetalled, 10½ miles. The East Indian Railway starts from its terminus at Howrah town, and leaves the District at its first station—Bálí—a distance of 6 miles.

Administration.—In revenue matters, as already stated, Howrah forms a part of Húglí District, and separate figures cannot be furnished. It contained in 1882–83, 6 civil and 7 criminal courts, the average distance of villages from the nearest court being 9 miles. The police

force consisted of 251 officers and men of the regular District police, 377 town and river police, and 1433 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). Education is afforded by 579 schools, attended by upwards of 17,000 pupils. The magisterial District of Howrah consists of the Sub-divisions of (1) Howrah, comprising the police circles (*thánás*) of Howrah, Bálí, Golábarí, Sibpur, Dumjor, and Jagat-ballabhpur; and (2) Ulubáriá, comprising the police circles of Ulubáriá, Ampta, Bághnán, and Shámpur.

Howrah.—Sub-division of Howrah District, Bengal, lying between 22° 30′ and 22° 41′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 5′ 45″ and 88° 24′ 15″ E. long. Area, 173 square miles, with 373 villages or towns, 63,259 houses, and a population (1881) thus made up:—Hindus, 243,753, or 78·22 per cent.; Muhammadans, 65,537, or 21·03 per cent.; Christians, 2024, or ·65 per cent.; 'others,' 330, or ·1 per cent.; total, 311,644, namely, 162,603 males and 149,041 females. Proportion of males, 52·17; average density of population, 1801 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·15; persons per village, 836 (including the large town of Howrah in the average); houses per square mile, 365; inmates per house, 4·93. The population in 1872 was 297,064, thus showing an increase of 14,580 in nine years. This Sub-division, which was created in 1843, comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Howrah, Bálí, Golábarí, and Sibpur,—these four comprising the Howrah municipality,—Dumjor, and Jagat-ballabhpur. It contains 3 civil and 7 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 169 men, with 520 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Howrah.—The largest and most important town, and the head-quarters of the magisterial District of Howrah. Situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, opposite Calcutta, practically forming a suburb of that city. Lat. 22° 35′ 16″ N., long. 88° 23′ 12″ E. At the end of last century, Howrah is described in the Board of Revenue's records as a small village; and in 1785 it was held by a Mr. Lovett, who petitioned the Board to be allowed to relinquish it. Since that time it has risen and prospered with the growth of Calcutta, and is now a large town, with a Magistrate, Small Cause Court Judge, etc. of its own. The total area of Howrah and its suburbs comprised within municipal limits is 11·05 square miles, and its population is thus returned in the Census of 1881:—Hindus, 45,985 males and 35,562 females—total, 81,547; Muhammadans, 13,656 males and 8169 females—total, 21,825; Christians, 1110 males and 818 females—total, 1928; 'others,' 238 males and 90 females—total, 328: total of all denominations—60,989 males and 44,639 females; grand total, 105,628, dwelling in 28,340 houses; average of persons per house, 3·72. The excess of males over females is explained by the fact that the population includes a large number of artisans and labourers who come from the rural parts, and do not bring their families with them. The

population of the municipality in 1872 was 97,784, showing an increase of 7844, or 8·02 per cent., in nine years. In 1883-84, the gross municipal income of Howrah, including balances and collections on account of arrears of the previous year, amounted to £24,885. Excluding balances and collections of arrears, the net municipal income of the year amounted to £24,598, or at an average rate of 4s. 6¾d. per head of the population. The Census of 1881 showed that 25·24 per cent. of the male population of the town, or 15·58 per cent. of the total population, are able to read and write, or are under instruction. The returns showed 3522 boys and 293 girls at school, besides 11,875 males and 769 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The educational institutions comprise four schools for European and Eurasian children. The town of Howrah is lighted with gas; it contains several large and important dockyards, and is also the Bengal terminus of the East Indian Railway. Mills and manufactories of various sorts have rapidly developed. Communication with Calcutta is carried on by means of a massive pontoon or floating bridge, which was opened for traffic in October 1874. Howrah is also a suburban residence for many people who have their place of business in Calcutta. It contains a Mechanics' Institute, supported principally by the European employés of the East Indian Railway. The municipality of Howrah comprises Sibpur and Rámkrishnapur to the south, and Salkhiá to the north. Sibpur, situated opposite Fort-William, was a small village at the commencement of the century, but is now a flourishing little town, inhabited chiefly by clerks employed in Government or mercantile offices in Calcutta. On the river-side it contains a manufactory known as the Albion Works, consisting of a flour mill and a distillery; also a dockyard, saw-mill, and jute-mill. To the south of Sibpur lie the Royal Botanical Gardens and the Government Engineering College, formerly Bishops' College.

Hpa-gat.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It occupies the tract lying between the Salwín river on the east and the Dúnthamie and Bhinlaing on the west, and comprises the 3 revenue circles of Myaing-gyi, Myaing-gale, and Bhinlaing. In the north, the country is hilly and densely wooded; in the south, it is undulating and broken by stretches of low, marshy land. Tobacco is extensively grown in this latter portion. The head-quarters are at HPA-GAT. Population of the township in 1876, 9192; land revenue, £537; capitation tax, £811.

Hpa-gat.—Village in Amherst District, British Burma, and head-quarters of the township of the same name; situated on the right bank of the Salwín. Hpa-gat is 30 miles from Maulmain. Just to the north of the village are some limestone rocks, containing a large cave, with numerous images of different sizes of Gautama Buddha and

of Rahan. Most of these have been much damaged. Bats' dung for manure is collected in the caves.

Hpaung-lin. — The most northern township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; lies between 16° 45′ and 17° 33′ N. lat., and between 96° 5′ and 96° 20′ E. long.; and extends from the bank of the Pegu river northward along the Pu-zun-daung valley to the lower slopes of the Pegu Yomas, which are covered with valuable forests, containing teak, *pyin-gado*, *pÿin-ma*, *in*, etc. Area, 880 square miles. Towards the south, the country is well cultivated for rice, and intersected by numerous creeks, falling into the Pegu and Pu-zun-daung rivers, the latter navigable throughout its whole length in this township. The road to Pegu traverses Hpaung-lin. Population (1876) 34,477; gross revenue, £21,251. The head-quarters are at Hlay-gu, on the Pu-zun-daung river and the Rangoon and Pegu road, 28 miles distant from Rangoon.

Hpyu (*Hypoo*).—River in Taung-gu District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; rises in the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yomas, and after a south-easterly course of about 70 miles, falls into the Sittaung (Tsittaung), 28 miles south of Taung-gu. The first 56 miles of the Hpyu are through a mountain gorge; during the last 5 or 6 miles, its course is a series of rapids rushing through narrow channels between high walls of rock. In the rainy season it is navigable for large-sized boats up to Min-lan. The slopes of the hills drained by the Hpyu are covered with dry open forest of teak, *pyin-gado*, climbing bamboos, *thin-gan*, *ka-gnyin*, oak (Quercus sp.), and other 'green forest' trees. During the rains a considerable quantity of timber and raw silk are brought down the river to the Sittaung for conveyance to the local markets.

Hubli. — Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 311 square miles; contains 1 town and 70 villages. Population (1881) 91,997, namely, 45,542 males and 46,455 females. Hindus numbered 74,199; Muhammadans, 15,884; 'others,' 1914. Since 1872, the population has decreased by 9241. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 70 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 230.

Hubli.—Chief town of the Hubli Sub-division in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 20′ N., long. 75° 12′ E. Situated 13 miles south-east of Dhárwár town, on the main road from Poona (Púna) to Harihar; distant 274 miles south-east from Poona, 142 miles from Bellary, 102 miles from Kárwár, and 97 miles from Kúmpta (Coompta). In 1872 the population was 37,961, and the municipal income £2220. Population (1881) 36,677; municipal income (1882–83), £3255; rate of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head. Of the population (1881), males numbered 17,972, females 18,705; Hindus, 24,912, or 68 per cent.; Muhammadans, 10,902, or 29·7 per cent.; Jains, 559; Christians, 298; Pársís, 6. Situated on the main lines of communication to

Harihar, Kárwár, and Kúmpta, Hubli has become the centre of the cotton trade of the Southern Maráthá country. Besides raw cotton and silk fabrics, a trade in copper vessels, grain, salt, and other commodities is conducted on a large scale. Subordinate judge's court, post-office, and charitable dispensary. The number of patients treated in the dispensary was—in-door, 142; out-door, 15,896. Hubli was formerly the seat of an English factory, which in 1673, with the rest of the town, was plundered by Sivají, the Maráthá leader.

Hudikeri.—Village in Coorg, head-quarters of the Kiggatnád *táluk*. Lat. 12° 5′ N., long. 76° E.; 39 miles south-south-east of Merkárá, the Coorg capital. Population (1881) 693; number of houses, 104. Hudikeri is healthily situated on the top of a grass-covered hill, whence a fine view is obtained of the Brahmagiri and Marenád ranges. Anglo-vernacular school, with 142 pupils. Post-office.

Húglí River (*Hooghly*).—The most westerly and, for commercial purposes, the most important channel by which the GANGES enters the Bay of Bengal. It takes its distinctive name near the town of Sántipur, 64 miles from Calcutta, and some distance above the point where the waters of the Bhágírathí join those of the Mátábhángá. The united stream thus formed, and during the rest of its course known as the Húglí, represents three western deltaic distributaries of the Ganges,—viz. (1) the BHAGIRATHI; (2) the JALANGI, including the waters brought down by its feeder the Bhairab (all of which leave the main stream of the Ganges, or Padma, in Murshidábád District); and (3) part of the waters of the MATABHANGA, which branches off from the Ganges in Nadiyá District. The Bhágírathí and Jalangí unite at Nadiyá, and their combined stream is joined lower down, near Chágdah, by the Mátábhángá.

According to some authorities, the distinctive name of the Húglí is taken by the united stream of the Bhágírathí and Jalangí from their point of union at Nadiyá, about 24 miles above Sántipur. The Mátábhángá joins this united stream near Chágdah, about 15 miles below Sántipur. From Chágdah, the three united headwaters flow down under the name of the Húglí to Calcutta, about 49 miles. But the Mátábhángá has in its turn taken the name of the CHURNI before the point of junction at Chágdah, and thrown out new distributaries of its own; so that, strictly speaking, the Húglí is made up of the united streams of the Bhágírathí and Jalangí, together with such part of the lower waters of the Mátábhángá as the Churní brings down.

The river system chiefly represented by these three western distributaries of the Ganges is known as 'The Nadiyá Rivers.' They are important not only as the headwaters of the Húglí, but also as great highways for inland traffic. Like other deltaic distributaries, they are subject to sudden changes in their channels, and to constant silting up.

The supervising and keeping open of the Nadiyá rivers has therefore formed one of the great tasks of fluvial engineering in Bengal. A special staff, under the Superintendent of the Nadiyá Rivers, is employed to watch and to control their movements, and weekly reports of their condition are published in the official Gazette. It is due in part to the careful attention thus paid to the headwaters of the Húglí, that Calcutta has not shared the fate of almost every other deltaic capital in India, and been shut off from the sea by the silting up of the river upon which its prosperity depends.

The Húglí thus starts life under a stringent supervision, from which it is scarcely allowed to escape until it reaches the sea. There is a portion of its course, however, during which it is left to itself. This is the section between the point where it takes its name of the Húglí near Sántipur, and that at which the river comes within the jurisdiction of the Port Commissioners of Calcutta.

General Course of the Húglí.—Proceeding south from Sántipur, with a twist to the east, the Húglí river divides Murshidábád from Húglí District, until it touches the District of the Twenty-four Parganás in lat. 22° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 88° 27′ 15″ E., close to the village of Bágherkhál. It then proceeds almost due south to Calcutta, next twists to the south-west, and finally turns south, entering the Bay of Bengal in lat. 21° 41′ N., and long. 88° E. From Bágherkhál downwards, it marks the boundary between the District of the Twenty-four Parganás on the east, and the Districts of Húglí, Howrah, and Midnapur successively on the west. The river thus forms not only the most important feature in the geography of the western delta, but also a great demarcating line in the administrative distribution of the country.

Three Sections of the Húglí.—For practical purposes, the Húglí river, and the Gangetic distributaries which combine to form it, may be divided into three lengths or sections:—(1) The headwaters of the Húglí, consisting of the offshoots of the Ganges, which unite successively at Nadiyá and near Chágdah to form the Húglí river. The length of the longest headwater, the Bhágírathí, before its point of junction at Nadiyá, is 164 miles. (2) The section from the town of Sántipur, near to which the combined stream takes the distinctive name of the Húglí river, down to Calcutta, a distance of 64 miles. (3) A longer section of say 80 miles from Calcutta to Ságar island. At this island, or even above it, the Húglí ceases to be a river in the ordinary sense of the word, and becomes an estuary or a wide branch of the sea. The mileage of the upper sections is given approximately, as the twists, and the shifting of the channel from year to year, render precision impossible without a fresh actual survey. Throughout these upper sections the Húglí and its headwaters exhibit the characteristic features of a deltaic river. They tend to cut their banks alternately on the

convex curve of each twist, and to deposit silt on the opposite concave side.

Alleged Deterioration of the Húglí.—The commerce of Calcutta, the capital of India, depends upon the maintenance of the Húglí as a great waterway. Assertions are frequently made, and grave public anxiety has been expressed, that the Húglí river is deteriorating. Such a deterioration would, it is said, leave Calcutta land-locked and ruined. The settlements of the Danes, French, Dutch, and Portuguese higher up the river, none of which can now be approached by sea-going ships, are cited as warnings of the fate which may be in store for the metropolis of British India. Such statements have a very important bearing on Indian commerce, and might, in certain states of public opinion, produce panic. Each of the three sections into which the river is divided in the foregoing paragraph has therefore been separately examined for this article.

In regard to the first section, or the Húglí headwaters, valuable special reports have been received from T. H. Wickes, Esq., Superintending Engineer of the South-Western Circle of Bengal, and P. B. Roberts, Esq., C.E., Executive Engineer of the Nadiyá Rivers Division. The old standard Report on the Nadiyá Rivers is Captain Lang's, dated 14th July 1848, which the present author freely used in his *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 18 to 33. For more detailed information than can be given in this article, the reader is referred to that volume (Trübner, 1875). In regard to the third section of the Húglí, from Calcutta to the sea, Lieutenant Petley, R.N., the officer charged with the survey of the river, has rendered kind personal assistance and furnished much valuable information.

Headwaters of the Húglí.—The headwaters of the Húglí consist, as already stated, of three spill streams from the Ganges, namely—(1) the Bhágirathí; (2) the Jalangí, including its upper feeder the Bhairab, which is also a Gangetic distributary; and (3) such part of the waters of the Mátábhángá as are brought down by its lower continuation the Churní. During several months of the year all these rivers dwindle into insignificant streamlets quite incapable of supplying the waters of the deep and broad Húglí. 'Any one of them,' writes the Executive Engineer, 'may in the dry season be regarded as consisting of a number of deep pools, connected by shoals over which the depth of water runs as low as half a foot, if artificial means be not employed to form narrow channels through the shoals.' As will be presently shown, each of the rivers is frequently closed during the dry weather, while in the great majority of years the depth maintained does not exceed two feet at the shallower places.

The Húglí fed by Infiltration.—During these dry months, the waters of the Húglí are supplied by infiltration. The delta is in fact a mere

sieve of silt and mud, through which vast quantities of water percolate into the deep trough which the Húglí has scooped out for itself. There is, as it were, a moving mass of water flowing underneath the surface of the land into the Húglí drain. This perpetual process of subterraneous infiltration renders the Húglí almost independent of its headwaters, so long as the depth of its main channel or drainage line is maintained. 'After passing Sukhságar,' writes the Superintending Engineer, 'it is impossible to tell whether the Nadiyá Rivers are open or closed, as the proportion of water they supply is a mere nothing.' Thus, in 1869, two of the three headwaters were closed, and the third supplied only 20 cubic feet of water per second. Yet within twenty-five miles of their point of junction, the Húglí was a wide, deep stream; a stream which now supplies Calcutta with over eight million gallons of water per diem (besides another four millions taken off lower down), without decreasing to any appreciable extent the water in the navigable channel from Calcutta to the sea.

But in order that this vast process of infiltration should go on, the Húglí bed must lie at a considerable depth below the surface. This depth is secured by the scouring of the current during the rainy season. The spill streams from the Ganges, which form the headwaters of the Húglí, then pour down enormous masses of water. At some places, a single one of the headwaters when in overflow exceeds a mile in breadth. Their accumulated floods rush down to form the Húglí, scoop out its channel to a great depth, and so maintain its efficiency as a line of drainage for subterraneous infiltration during the rest of the year.

Húglí Headwaters.—(1) *The Bhágírathí.*—The first or northernmost of the Gangetic distributaries which go to form the Húglí is the Bhágírathí. This is a very ancient river, which is believed on good authority to represent the original course of the main channel of the Ganges. It has been described in a separate article in *The Imperial Gazetteer of India*, and can here be considered only in its special aspect as the chief of the Húglí headwaters. The Bhágírathí at present takes off from the Ganges below Sutí, between Jairámpur and Dhulián in Murshidábád District. But its head continually shifts, sometimes to the extent of fifteen miles in three years; and it has a chronic oscillation of four miles. The present length of the Bhágírathí is 164 miles from its point of departure from the Ganges to its junction with the Jalangí at Nadiyá.

The reasons for believing the Bhágírathí to represent the old Ganges are cogent. The present stream of the Ganges ceases to be sacred below the point where the Bhágírathí branches off, and changes its name to the Padmá. The Bhágírathí is itself still called the Ganges by the people along its banks, and is held sacred. A local legend tells, indeed, that the Ganges formerly ran where the Bhágírathí now flows,

until a certain demon at Rámpur Beauleah swallowed it. This demon was a geological one, namely, a band of stiff yellow clay which confined the Ganges to the course of the Bhágírathí until it was burst through by some heavy flood. It was at Sutí, at the head of the Bhágírathí, that Rájá Bhágírath prayed to Holy Ganges to descend from the Himálayas and purify the ashes of his ancestors. The story is told in full in the separate article BHAGIRATHI. Chágdah is said to take its name from the Rájá's chariot-wheels having stuck in the sand, when he was on his way from Sutí to Kálíghát. (*Cf. chakra*, a wheel, and *dah*, a place where the river is silted up with sand.) It should be added that Kálíghát, one of the most ancient shrines of Bengal, lies on an old river-bed which is, hydrographically, the true continuation of the Bhágírathí or old Ganges, *viâ* the Húglí. The old Ganges appears to have left the present Húglí near the Kidderpur dockyard, and to have followed the course of what is now called Tolly's *nálá* past Kálíghát to Gariya, where it turned to the south. Tolly's *nálá* is still a sacred stream; and below Gariya the old river is to this day known as the Ganga-nadí. The limits of this old bed of the Ganges can still be distinctly traced for a considerable distance by the high ridges which once formed its banks.

Changes on a great scale still take place in the bed of the Bhágírathí. Thus, Nadiyá town was originally situated on the right bank; but the river, after rending in twain the ancient city, now leaves the modern Nadiyá on its left bank. This change was completed within the present century. During the past hundred years, also, the Bhágírathí has eaten away the battlefield of Plassey and other memorable spots. From time to time the river gives back its prey, and the sites which it has swallowed again become dry ground.

Alleged Deterioration of the Bhágírathí.—The divergence eastwards of the main body of the Gangetic waters from the ancient Bhágírathí must have led to important changes in the latter river. The portion of the waters which still continued to flow down the Bhágírathí, could no longer suffice to scour and keep open the whole extent of its wide bed. Some parts of the old Bhágírathí bed would therefore be left dry; in others the languid current would drop its silt and produce shoals, mud-banks, and islands. Such shoals and islands would, in time, join themselves to the bank, by the silting up of the intervening channel.

This process gradually reduced the Bhágírathí to its present modest dimensions; and the question has been raised whether it has not now reached the last stage in the life of a deltaic river. In that stage the process of silting up completes itself, and the river dwindles into a series of pools, and finally disappears. The existence of the Bhágírathí practically depends on its inflow from the Ganges. Its only tributary of consequence from the west is the Adjai, which brings

down the drainage of the Bírbhúm and Santál uplands in furious floods during the rains, but dwindles into a silver thread in the dry weather. The question as to the future of the Bhágírathí is therefore practically confined to the deterioration of its intake from the Ganges. The historical information bearing upon this important inquiry is as follows.

In January 1666, a French priest mentioned that the mouth of the Bhágírathí at Sutí was dried up. In 1756, Mr. Holwell, in the narrative of his journey to Murshidábád after the catastrophe of the Black Hole, speaks of the shoals of the Bhágírathí, and mentions that he had to change his boat for a smaller one at Sántipur on account of the shallowness of the water. In 1781, Major Rennel states that the Nadiyá rivers were usually unnavigable in the dry season. In 1797, Captain Colebroke also observed that 'the Bhágírathí and Jalangí are not navigable' during the dry months. During the last 62 years, from 1822 to 1884, the Bhágírathí has been closed 20 years in the dry weather; during 18 years a lowest depth of one and a half to two feet has been maintained; while during 24 years the lowest depth has been from two to three feet. In the rains, the floods rise from twenty-three to twenty-nine feet, and there is generally a depth of fourteen feet throughout that season.

Húglí Headwaters—(2) *The Jalangí and Bhairab*.—Proceeding south-eastwards, the next deltaic distributary which goes to form the Húglí is the united stream of the Jalangí and Bhairab. The Bhairab takes off from the Ganges at Akriganj, about 43 miles below the head of the Bhágírathí. The Bhairab has been for long a decayed river; but in its prime it must have been of great hydrographic importance. On the one hand it was inferior in antiquity and in volume to the old Bhágírathí; but on the other it is much more ancient than the two remaining head-waters of the Húglí, namely, the Jalangí and Mátábhángá. The name of the Bhairab, literally 'The Terrible,' still bears witness to the place which it held in the imagination of the people. The levels show that it once ran across the Districts of Murshidábád, Nadiyá, and Jessor, crossing the courses of the present Jalangí and Mátábhángá. But the old Bhairab became a dead river, its former course being cut into three pieces. It was intersected and destroyed by the Jalangí and Mátábhángá. Indeed, this tract has formed the arena for fluvial revolutions on a gigantic scale. A part of Nadiyá District is covered with a complete network of dead river beds. This watery reticulation spreads itself in every direction; in some places as long lines of pools; in others as muddy ditches, or mere depressions of exceptional greenness.

During the past ten years the waning fortunes of the Bhairab have begun to rise again. The floods of 1874 forced open the mouth of the Bhairab at its intake from the Ganges. The Bhairab expanded from a small stream of 20 yards into an important distributary,

which poured its waters into the Jalangí forty miles farther south. The result was that the channel of the Jalangí above this point of junction began to close up, and the Bhairab is now the channel by which the river called the Jalangí obtains its main water-supply from the Ganges.

The Jalangí was, until 1874, a very important river. Inferior in remote antiquity to the Bhairab, it had some centuries ago cut across the course of that river, and diverted its waters. The Jalangí took its offshoot from the Ganges at different times from thirty to forty miles below the Bhairab mouth, and, until 1874, was a broad river about 1000 feet in width. After the forcible re-opening of the Bhairab mouth by the floods of 1874, the upper part of the Jalangí silted up, and has almost closed. The 36 miles of the upper Jalangí from its offtake from the Ganges to its junction with the Bhairab may now, in its turn, be considered as a dead river. But its main length, from its junction with the Bhairab for 111 miles to its junction with the Bhágírathí at Nadiyá, still bears the name of Jalangí.

In this restricted sense, the history of the Jalangí during the past 63 years, from 1822 inclusive to 1884, may be thus summarized :—Closed in the dry season, during 43 years ; open to a minimum depth of one and a half to two feet, 9 years ; open to a minimum depth of two to three feet, 11 years. In the rains, the Jalangí has ample water for all purposes, with an average rise of two to three feet less than the Bhágírathí. For general purposes of description, the Bhairab and Jalangí are now taken to be one stream, and their united waters bear the name of the Jalangí. As already stated, they unite with the Bhágírathí at Nadiyá, and the combined stream flows down 39 miles, till it unites with the Mátábhángá near Chágdah.

Húglí Headwaters—(3) *The Mátábhángá* has its principal offtake from the Ganges near Maheshkunda, 40 miles below the Bhairab mouth, and 83 miles below that of the Bhágírathí. At present it is the south-easternmost of the Húglí headwaters. During the first 40 miles after leaving the Ganges, it is known as the Haulí or Kúmar. At about the 40th mile, the true Kúmar, locally known as the Pangásí, branches off to the east, and carries away four-fifths of the Mátábhángá waters to the Sundarbans. The remaining fifth flows down the lower Mátábhángá, which here takes the name of the Churní river, till it joins the Bhágírathí near Chágdah.

The offtake of the upper Mátábhángá or Haulí from the Ganges is subject to the same shifting and changing as the Bhágírathí. Within the recollection of the present Superintending Engineer, its offtake has moved down ten miles. The whole length of the Mátábhángá, upper and lower, from its present offtake at Maheshkunda to its junction with the Húglí at Chágdah, is 121 miles.

The Mátábhángá is a comparatively narrow stream, with well-defined banks throughout. It presents more of the appearance of a canal than a river to the traveller passing along it by boat, the width from high bank to high bank being only a few hundred feet. During the past 65 years, it has undergone many vicissitudes. Up to 1820, the Kúmar river took off from the Mátábhángá at the village of Káchikátá. In that year the Superintendent of the Nadiyá Rivers constructed a strong embankment across its head, and continued the embankment for some miles above and below, with the view of forcing the entire discharge of the Mátábhángá down the Churní. At first the attempt was successful, but in the great floods of 1823 the pent-up waters outflanked the embankment at the village of Pangásí, 8 miles north of Káchikátá. They poured across the country, and dug out a new river channel, now locally known as the Pangásí, which unites with the true Kúmar after a course of about 9 miles. The Pangásí is about a quarter of a mile in width, and carries off four-fifths of the Mátábhángá waters. From time to time, however, the Kúmar or Pangásí mouth has, in its turn, showed signs of silting up.

The history of the Mátábhángá during the 63 years from 1822 inclusive to 1884, may be summarized as follows:—Closed in the dry weather, 54 years; open to a minimum depth of one and a half to two feet, 6 years; opened to minimum depth of two to three feet, 3 years. During the rainy season, the Mátábhángá rises to about the same height as the Jalangí, and is passable for large boats and river steamers.

Work done by the Húglí Headwaters.—It will be seen, therefore, that during the rains the three Húglí headwaters pour down floods of 20 to 29 feet, with an average depth of, say 10 to 14 feet. The concentration of these vast masses of water has hitherto sufficed to scour the Húglí bed, and to maintain the depth of the Húglí trough below the surface of the ground. So long as the depth of that trough is thus maintained by scouring in the rains, the infiltration of the subterraneous waters of the delta affords the water-supply to the Húglí in the dry weather.

The Húglí Headwaters as Trade Routes.—The Húglí headwaters are also important navigable channels. They afford short and safe water routes to Calcutta for the up-country traffic, as compared with the long circuit to the south-east *viâ* the Ganges and the Sundarbans. Thus, from Káliganj, where the Bhágírathí takes off from the Ganges, the distance to Calcutta is 520 miles *viâ* the Sundarbans, and only 284 miles *viâ* the Mátábhángá; 270 miles *viâ* the Bhairab-Jalangí, and 240 miles *viâ* the Bhágírathí. It is important, therefore, that these three rivers should be kept open, not only as headwaters of the Húglí, but also for their own sakes as trade routes.

Deepening Operations on the Húglí Headwaters.—The dangerous

state of the three rivers attracted attention at the end of the last century. In 1797, experience had already shown that none of them was to be depended upon as a navigable waterway. The expansion of Calcutta commerce led to petitions to Government on the subject; and during the first quarter of the present century, operations were commenced with a view to prevent further deterioration of these 'Nadiyá Rivers.' Those operations were directed to keeping open the rivers throughout the dry season for broad oval-bottomed cargo-boats drawing two to three feet. In the rains there was always enough water, although the obstructions and snags in the rivers sometimes rendered navigation perilous. In 1813, the police officers along the Mátábhángá bank were ordered to take the necessary steps, and a toll was levied to defray the expense. Police interference could, however, yield but scanty results; and in 1818, the obstructions had become so dangerous as to wreck numbers of boats, and to entail heavy demurrage by the detention of others. In that year, the merchants of Calcutta urgently petitioned the Government to adopt adequate measures. Mr. C. R. Robinson was accordingly appointed the first Superintendent and Collector of the Mátábhángá, and commenced operations in 1819-20. In June of the latter year he was succeeded by Mr. May, who, during a long and arduous service of twenty years, laid the foundation of the system still at work.

Nadiyá River Operations (1820-1884).—Throughout more than half a century, this struggle of engineering skill against nature has been going on. Any attempt to enter into the detailed operations is beyond the scope of the present article. But the results may be summarized; and the author has given a fuller description of the Nadiyá River works in the second volume of his *Statistical Account of Bengal*. Heroic operations, such as the creation of new channels, have seldom been found to answer. The engineers have had to accept the fact that their resources are inadequate to control the mighty changes in the course of the Ganges, and the extensive shifting in the offtakes of its distributaries. Attempts to form permanent heads for the Nadiyá Rivers have been long abandoned. Such heads, even if they were kept open at a great expense during a period of years, would be liable to be blocked up in any single season by the formation of a great *char* or silt island in the Ganges in front of the opening.

But the engineers have during more than half a century also found that, although they cannot compel nature, they can coax her. In the first place, they have made short connecting cuts, the advantage of which is however doubtful; in the second place, they have cleared passages through bars of tough clay, which obstructed the channels; in the third place, they have removed accidental obstructions, such as trees or sunken boats, which would have caused a deposit of silt and

closed the channels. In the fourth place, they have learned how to 'train' the rivers, and make them keep themselves open by the compressed force of their own current. Such training works form perhaps the most permanent resource of engineering skill in its battle with the caprices of the deltaic rivers.

Training Works on the Nadiyá Rivers.—It has been found that by guiding the rivers into channels varying, according to the volume of water, from 50 to 100 feet wide, a velocity of one and a half to three feet per second, with a depth of three feet, can be maintained during the dry season. Accordingly, each November, when the Nadiyá Rivers have generally a velocity of current equal to about three miles an hour, or 4½ feet per second, 'training' operations are commenced. Experience has shown that if the velocity can be maintained through the dry season as high as 1·2 feet per second, the channel will keep itself clear of silt. If the velocity can be maintained at 1·5 feet per second, or over, the current will, of itself, perform a deepening process by scouring away the bed. A velocity of 3 feet per second, or two miles per hour, suffices to cause a channel to deepen itself to 3 feet in a few days. In order to maintain the velocity (which at the beginning of the dry season may be taken at 4 feet per second), it is necessary—first, to secure a sufficient offtake of water from the Ganges; and second, to confine the volume of water within sufficiently narrow limits. Efforts are therefore made to keep open the head of the river where it starts from the Ganges. Expensive cuttings and excavations were formerly made, with this end; but these have been abandoned, since 1826, in favour of simple training works.

The actual training of the channel is accomplished by spurs, *jhamps*, and *bandhals*. A spur is constructed by carrying out from the bank two parallel rows of bamboo stakes 2 to 5 feet apart, and then filling the space between them with grass or jungle. A *jhamp* is a screen or mat of split bamboos on a strong frame, generally about 6 feet long and 2¼ feet wide. A *bandhal* is constructed by driving a row of bamboo stakes into the river-bed like a fishing weir, and then tying the *jhamp* to the stakes. Care has to be taken that a clear space is left between the bottom of the *jhamp* and the bed of the river, and that the upper side of the *jhamp* is above the surface of the water. The training works act in the following manner:—Where two channels exist with a *char* or island between them, one is closed to increase the velocity in the other. This is done, when there is a good current, by running a *bandhal* across the head whilst the river is still falling. The water rushes through the space left below the *jhamp*, carrying a large quantity of sand with it, which is at once deposited immediately in rear of the *bandhal*, and soon forms a ridge. The latter appears above water in a few days, and effectually closes the channel. If the current is slack a

'spur' is run out until the contraction of the channel produces a sufficient velocity, when the remainder of the opening is closed by a *bandhal*, which acts as already described. When a shoal has to be cleared, two *bandhals* are run out (or spurs and *bandhals* if the current be slack), one from each bank of the river. These are so aligned as to form a bell-shaped mouth up-stream (just above the shoal), with a contracted channel over the shoal. Sand or silt is speedily deposited by the current behind the *bandhals*, as above explained; a narrow channel is formed; and a suitable velocity to prevent silting is maintained.

The head-works are of a similar character to those above described, but on a larger scale. The 'spurs' are 4 or 5 instead of 2 feet in width; wooden 'bullies' or piles take the place of bamboos; and the *bandhals* are stronger and more elaborately constructed. These devices for training the current into narrow limits suffice to maintain the requisite velocity of 1½ to 3 feet per second in seasons when a sufficient volume of water is obtained from the Ganges above.

Results of the Nadiyá River Operations.—The long struggle of 64 years still remains a drawn battle. A hand-to-mouth existence for the Nadiyá Rivers has been maintained. The exact depth in each of the three Húglí headwaters during the dry season from 1822 to 1884 is given in the preceding pages. That depth may seem insignificant to persons unacquainted with the light draught of Bengal cargo boats. But a minimum depth of 2 to 3 feet enables a very important traffic, with the help of shoving, and waiting to get over the shallows. On the whole, successful efforts have been made to allow cargo boats of light draught to pass down one or other of the Nadiyá Rivers throughout nearly the whole of the dry season. Even when this is not effected and the laden traffic has to go round the Sundarbans, sufficient depth is maintained to enable the return empty boats to proceed by the Nadiyá Rivers instead of having to go back by the long and tedious route. The minimum depths, recorded in the foregoing pages, refer in some years to only short periods in the dry season. The obstructed state of the channels, and the snags and sunken wrecks which led to the merchants' petition in 1818, before the operations commenced, have long disappeared. The records show that even in the dry season there has been no marked deterioration in the Nadiyá Rivers as a whole since 1820. Old heads have closed, and new heads have opened, but the total discharge does not appear to have decreased. The dry season discharge remains about the same; and the flood discharge seems rather to have increased than to have diminished since the operations commenced.

The Future of the Húglí Headwaters.—If those operations have not improved the Húglí headwaters, they may claim to have arrested deterioration. The value of the Nadiyá Rivers as short waterways for the up-country traffic to Calcutta has increased, and the tolls on

their courses yielded in 1883–84, Rs. 200,907, against an expenditure of Rs. 125,275 in keeping the channels open. In their even more important aspect, as the headwaters of the Húglí, their vitality has been preserved. They still discharge their function of scouring out the Húglí channel during the rains, and of thus maintaining the Húglí bed at a sufficient depth to feed itself from the subterraneous infiltration of the delta during the dry weather. It would be rash to venture on any prediction as to the future of these Nadiyá Rivers. On the one hand, engineering skill is constantly increasing the resources at its disposal. On the other hand, the tendency of deltaic distributaries branching off at rather sharp angles is to deteriorate and die away. Moreover, the floods of the Ganges and its offshoots may, during any rainy season, produce a fluvial cataclysm altogether beyond the control of man. It should also be remembered that the fate of the Húglí depends not entirely upon its headwaters. There is a section of about 42 miles from the junction of those headwaters at Chágdah down to the port of Calcutta, throughout which the river is subject to neither supervision nor control. In this section, important changes have taken place,—changes which we shall presently consider.

Second Section of the Húglí—Sántipur to Chágdah, and thence to Calcutta.—The waters of the Bhágírathí and the Jalangí, which have united at Nadiyá, flow thence under the name of the Bhágírathí, for about 24 miles, down to Sántipur. At Sántipur, the combined stream takes the name of the Húglí, and flows on for about 15 miles to Chágdah, where it receives the Lower Mátábhángá (under the name of the Churní). The three Gangetic headwaters, thus finally united at Chágdah, proceed as the Húglí for 49 miles to Calcutta.

The Old Dámodar Junction with the Húglí.—The main feature of this section is the silted-up mouth of an ancient feeder from the west. The Dámodar river poured its waters at one time into this section of the Húglí. But during the past two centuries, a series of great floods burst through the Dámodar embankments, and the river rushed southwards by a course of its own. The modern Dámodar now joins the Húglí nearly opposite Falta, 31 nautical miles below Calcutta. The ancient Dámodar entered the Húglí more than 39 English miles above Calcutta. Its waters represented the drainage of a vast catchment basin in Western Bengal and Chutiá Nágpur.

In old times, therefore, the section of the Húglí above Calcutta received not only a copious supply through its present eastern headwaters from the Ganges, but also the drainage of the western Dámodar basin. In the last century, the Dámodar floods gradually forced a larger passage for themselves to the southwards. This period of fluvial anarchy may be taken to have culminated in 1770, when the Dámodar destroyed Bardwán town, and ruined the line of embank-

ments which had formerly helped to check its southern tendency, and to confine it to its ancient easterly course into the Húglí. But long before 1770, its southern branch had so enlarged itself as to carry off the bulk of its waters. Its old eastern course into the upper section of the Húglí is now represented by a languid muddy cutting, the Kansoná *khál*, which joins the Húglí at Nayá Sarái, about 39 miles above Calcutta. At the end of the last century, the Kansoná *khál* was still officially spoken of as the 'mouth of the old Dámodar.' In 1793, the Collector of Bardwán submitted proposals for the re-opening of this mouth of the ancient Dámodar; proposals which the Government, with its then defective engineering resources, declined to sanction. The old Dámodar channel, locally known as the Kansoná *khál* and Kána-nadi, is now utilized as an irrigation channel, and forms part of the Eden canal for supplying drinking water and for irrigation purposes.

Results of the Closing of the Dámodar Mouth.—For practical purposes, therefore, the Dámodar became a dead tributary so far as the Húglí section above Calcutta was concerned. It no longer swelled the three Gangetic distributaries which had scooped out and kept clear the Húglí bed. The result was, that during the last century the Húglí above Calcutta deteriorated. Silt *chars* and mud islands were formed. Some of these joined themselves to the neighbouring banks; while in other cases, shoals formed off the bank, and rendered the ancient trading settlements no longer accessible to sea-going ships. A single example of a *char* or silt island which took place during the present generation will suffice to illustrate this process. About forty years ago, an almond-shaped bank rose above the surface of the water near Tribení. It soon became covered with long grass. A colony of Búna coolies, who had emigrated from the hills and jungles of Chutiá Nágpur to work at an indigo factory, made temporary settlements upon the island. They raised, in an intermittent fashion, cucumbers, pumpkins, and other vegetables. By degrees they permanently settled down on the island; and after some years the Collector reported that they had taken to regular cultivation, and adopted the habits and customs of Bengalí life. The island had almost joined itself to the bank; and unless some fluvial revolution takes place, it would become, in the natural course of things, a part of the mainland.

Ruin of European Settlements on the Húglí above Calcutta.—This process of silting went on in different stages throughout the last century. The section of the Húglí above Calcutta had been famous during six hundred years for its entrepôts for sea-going trade. Sátgáon, the Muhammadan royal port of Bengal, lay, as we shall presently see, near Tribení, 36 miles above Calcutta. When that port silted up, the Portuguese founded their chief Bengal settlement, a few miles lower down, at Húglí, in 1537. The Dutch came later, and in the 17th century established their

factory and port at Chinsurah, a mile below Húglí town, and now forming one municipality with it. Still later, in the middle of the 18th century, Chandarnagar, or Chandernagore, founded as a small French settlement in 1673, rose to mercantile importance under Dupleix. Chandarnagar lies, in its turn, a little farther down the river, 2 miles below Chinsurah. The German or Ostend Company came after the French, and about 1723 fixed their Bengal port at Bánkípur, 5 miles below Chandarnagar, but on the other side of the river. The Danes in 1616 had selected Serampur as their port, on the same side as Chandarnagar, but 8 miles farther down. All these ports and settlements lie at a distance of from 16 to about 36 miles above Calcutta. They are, without exception, now inaccessible to sea-going ships, even of small tonnage.

The deterioration of this section of the Húglí was accelerated after the old Dámodar mouth commenced to close, probably about the beginning of the last century. But the process of silting up was still very gradual. In 1757, Admiral Watson took his fleet, with his flagship of 64 guns, as high as Chandarnagar for the bombardment of that town. As late as 1821, the English pilots steered Danish ships of 700 to 800 tons up to Serampur. Indeed, one old pilot stated in evidence, that about the same period he had seen a ship of 800 tons go up to Chinsurah, and a French ship to Chandarnagar. After 1825, this section of the river seems to have rapidly deteriorated. The Dutch and Danish ships could go no farther up than Cossipur, just above Calcutta, and were there unladen in cargo boats. But until about 1865, inland navigation went on by means of flat-bottomed steamers. On the construction of the East India Railway, the flat-bottomed steamers by degrees withdrew from this section of the Húglí; and since about 1865 it has only been used in the dry season by native cargo boats.

The Old Saraswatí.—Another feature of this section of the Húglí is the closed mouth of the old Saraswatí, which is now represented by a tidal ditch opening on the Húglí at Tribení *ghát*, 36 miles above Calcutta. At one time, this ditch was a broad river flowing between high banks, at places 600 feet apart. It carried the main body of what is now the Húglí down to the south-west, and enjoyed religious honours as being the true continuation of the Ganges. According to the Sanskrit legend, the sanctifying waters of the Saraswatí enter the Jumná at Allahábád, and leave the Ganges at Tribení *ghát*, now on the Húglí. They flowed in a wide deep channel, now represented by the Saraswatí tidal ditch, to the south-west of the present Húglí river. The course of this dead river can still be traced by pools and marshes until it regains its character of a navigable channel near Sánkrel, where it re-enters the Húglí about 6 miles below Howrah. As late as the 15th

century, it was an important river. Sátgáon, the 'Ganges Regia,' or ancient royal port of Bengal, lay upon its bank a short distance inland from Tribeni *ghát.*

Sátgáon or Saptagrám was the traditional mercantile capital of Bengal from the Puránic age to the beginning of the 16th century. By that time the Saraswatí mouth had so far silted up that the Portuguese ships could no longer make use of it. Accordingly, in 1537, as already stated, they founded an emporium of their own a few miles lower down the Húglí at Gholghát, which grew up into Húglí town. The site of Sátgáon is now left high and dry, but old ships have been unearthed by torrents in the rainy season, at a depth of several feet in the deltaic mud. A thick jungle, dotted with oases of sugar-bearing palms, still retains the name of The Fort (*kilá*); and a long railway bridge spans an expanse of cultivation, with a paltry tidal channel in the middle, which was once the broad bed of the Saraswatí.

Present State of the Húglí above Calcutta.—It would appear, therefore, that within historical times great fluvial revolutions have taken place in the section of the Húglí above Calcutta. One important offshoot, the Saraswatí, has silted up; another important tributary, the Dámodar, no longer pours into this section the drainage from the western Districts and Chutiá Nágpur. The flourishing European settlements of the 16th to the 18th centuries are practically land-locked from sea-borne commerce. The process of silting up in this section has produced very marked results within the past hundred years. Alluvial formations are still going on in the river-bed from Serampur upwards. These formations are in many stages of growth, from the well-raised island with trees, down through successive phases of crop cultivation and reedy marshes, to shoals and little dots of dry land which only emerge above the water at certain seasons of the year. It is possible, therefore, that the gradual filling up of this section may in time so deteriorate the Húglí trough as to affect its water-supply derived from infiltration during the dry weather.

Alleged 'drying up' of the Húglí, 1738 *and* 1770.—In addition to the gradual process of silting, the Húglí seaboard is subject to the influence of earthquakes. There is a distinct tradition that the Húgli, at and above Calcutta, was almost dried up for short times, apparently by upheavals, in the last century. Statements are on record of persons having waded across the river at several points in 1770. Another report mentions that in '1738, 9th October, Thursday noon, at ebb tide, the river retired, leaving its bed dry opposite Calcutta.' How far these statements are strictly accurate it is now impossible to determine. The fragmentary evidence is collected in Appendix E. to the Húglí Committee Report, of January 23, 1855. It appears, however, that the river shortly regained its usual dimensions, and no means exist of

ascertaining whether the upheaval exercised any permanent effect upon the level of the Húglí trough. It must also be remembered that the next rainy season might bring down floods sufficient to scour out its bed to the previous depth.

Railway Bridge near Húglí.—A railway bridge is now being carried across the river near Húglí town. It is constructed on iron caissons sunk to a great depth below the bed of the river, and filled in with brick and mortar. It will connect the East India Railway system with that of the Eastern and Northern Bengal Railways, and thus concentrate the traffic of Upper India at one general terminus to be built on the Calcutta side of the Húglí.

The bridge is being constructed on the cantilever system, and will form an interesting example of that principle. It consists of three spans; the central cantilever span resting on two piers of great strength in the middle of the river; the second and third spans projecting from either bank, and resting upon the opposite ends of the middle cantilever span, instead of on separate piers of their own. The two extremities of the bridge are thus supported on solid masonry works on either bank; while the two massive middle piers under the central cantilever span supply the rest of the support to the structure. The two central piers are each sunk to a depth of 100 feet below mean sea-level, or 73 feet below the river-bed. They have been forced down through 64 feet of sand and silt, followed by 1 foot of wave gravel, and 8 feet of hard yellow clay. The height of the bridge above highest water mark is 36½ feet, so as to allow ample space beneath for the passage of river steamers and native cargo boats. Rail level, 58½ feet above mean sea-level. The length of the bridge is 1200 feet, consisting of two spans of 420 feet each projecting from the banks, and one central span of 360 feet. Estimated cost of the Húglí Railway Bridge and approaches, £900,000.

Húglí from Calcutta downwards.—The headwaters of the Húglí, and the course of the river from Sántipur to the port of Calcutta, have been treated of in the foregoing paragraphs. It remains to deal with the third section of the Húglí river, or the 80 miles from Calcutta to its estuary at Ságar island. This section, however, is now the subject of a regular survey conducted under the authority of the Port Commissioners of Calcutta. The results will shortly be published in an accessible form by Lieutenant Petley, R.N., the officer in charge of the survey. It is inexpedient to anticipate Lieutenant Petley's authoritative work by a minute description here. In the case of the headwaters and upper section, a fuller account was necessary in this article, as no attempt to deal with those sections has hitherto been available to the public.

The Húglí at Calcutta.—There is evidence to show that the Húglí at Calcutta was in the last century much broader than at the present

day. The site of Calcutta has itself been raised by the debris and accumulations of a great capital. Thus, the old floor of the Black Hole, excavated in 1883–84, was found to be several feet below the present level of the ground. The vast plain, or Calcutta *maidán*, with its garden and promenades, was, in the first half of the last century, a swamp during three months of each year. The well-raised quadrangle, known as Wellington Square, was part of a tidal channel; and local names such as Creek Row or *Dinge-bhángá*, literally, 'broken boats,' bear witness to a period when what are now solid streets were navigable waterways.

The change has to some extent resulted from embankments thrown out along the Calcutta side of the river. These embankments have left at their back the well-raised Strand and the commercial quarter of Calcutta. But the change has been due not altogether to artificial causes. At one time, the Húglí, instead of turning south-west at Calcutta, sent out a portion of its waters to the south-east. This south-east offshoot branched off near the exit of the present Tolly's *nálá*, and its course can still be traced in a series of pools and dips across the District of the Twenty-four Parganás. This dead river was probably, in very ancient times, the main exit of what are now the Húglí waters. The prehistoric shrine of Kálíghát lies upon its route. Other sacred places of Hinduism mark its course, and the high ground or banks along its forgotten bed supply holy spots for the burning of the dead. The line of pools and dips and channels is still known at sections as the Adi-Gangá or 'original Ganges.' The extinct river which they represent found its way into the Bay of Bengal near Ságar island, and it is there that the present Húglí river is again recognised as Mother Ganges, and resumes its sanctity. Hindus who die below the point where the Adi-Gangá left the Húglí have, during many generations, been carried to the Húglí above that point, or to the old banks of the Adi-Gangá itself, for incremation. The spice merchant in Makunda Rám's poem of the 16th century, on his voyage to Ceylon, sailed down the Húglí to the site of the present Calcutta, and then struck off south-eastward, past Kálíghát, to the Bay of Bengal.

Alleged Deterioration of the Húglí Channels.—From time to time fears have been entertained with regard to the Húglí approach to Calcutta. Such fears were very strongly expressed in the middle of the present century. Accordingly, in 1853, Lord Dalhousie appointed a Committee to inquire into 'the state of the river Húglí, particularly whether it has deteriorated for the purposes of navigation, and what has been the nature and progress of such deterioration.' It was even believed that at no distant date, ships of modern tonnage would be unable to approach Calcutta; and a project was entertained of found-

ing a new port 28 miles to the south-east, on the Matlá river, to anticipate the silting up of the Húgli channels.

The scientific evidence of pilots and experts then taken dissipated the panic, but it also made clear the necessity of closer attention to the Húglí channels. The vigilant supervision devoted to these channels will be mentioned in the following paragraphs; and the Húglí is now (1885) said to be in a better condition for the passage of large ships than it ever was. The Matlá project was, however, revived as a subsidiary port, and a railway was constructed to connect it with Calcutta. Trade, however, has clung to the Húglí. The Matlá harbour, known as PORT CANNING, proved a failure, and the railway to it from Calcutta is a loss to the Government. A branch line from the Matlá Railway at Sonárpur station runs to Diamond Harbour, 38 miles by rail from Calcutta.

The Changes in the Channels below Calcutta are so frequent that it would be misleading to enter into details in an account like the present. As already stated, Lieutenant Petley, R.N., Deputy Conservator of the Port of Calcutta, is now engaged on a scientific work on the Húglí, based upon continuous surveys. To that work those who require information on questions of detail must be referred. In the following paragraphs, distances below Calcutta are expressed in nautical miles, as tabulated in Lieutenant Petley's lists. Distances above Calcutta are invariably given approximately in English statute miles.

James and Mary Sands.—There is, however, one feature of the Húglí channels between Calcutta and the estuary which must be specially mentioned. It has been explained that the Dámodar river, which formerly poured its waters into the Húglí about 30 English miles above Calcutta, now enters the river opposite Falta, 31 nautical miles below that city. About 6 miles farther down than the present Dámodar mouth, the Rúpnáráyan also debouches from the same western side into the Húglí. These two rivers bring down the accumulated drainage of the south-western Districts of Bengal and of Chutiá Nágpur. They enter at rather sharp angles into the Húglí, and their volume of water checks the flow of the Húglí current. In this way they lead to deposits of enormous quantities of silt brought down by the three rivers, the Húglí, the Dámodar, and the Rúpnáráyan.

The result of their combined deposits is the dangerous shoal known as THE JAMES AND MARY SANDS, which will be treated in a separate article in volume vii. The entrance of the Rúpnáráyan would probably have itself sufficed to check the current, and to cause some deposit. But when the Dámodar, perhaps about the beginning of the last century, broke away to the south and forced its main passage into the Húglí just above the Rúpnáráyan, the deposits must have taken place on a greater scale. The process by which the Dámodar gradually

diverted the main body of its waters to this new mouth occupied many years, extending over a period of probably more than a century. Shortly after the English settled at Calcutta in 1686, the sandbank thus formed had become a recognised danger. The records show that on the 24th September 1694, the *Royal James and Mary* was lost on this shoal, and gave her name to the James and Mary Sands.

Present State of the James and Mary Sands.—These sands still continue to be one of the chief dangers of the Húglí. Banks and shifting quicksands are rapidly formed, and the channels have to be watched, and sounded, and supervised with almost the minute accuracy which a watchmaker would give to the repair of a delicate timepiece. If a vessel touches the bottom, she is pushed over by the current; and cases are known in which only the yards of a great three-masted ship have remained above water within half an hour after the accident. The vessel itself is sucked under, and covered over with the sands if not promptly blown up. The sands extend upwards from Húglí Point, 37·1 nautical miles from Calcutta, opposite the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan, to about Falta Point, 31·2 nautical miles from Calcutta, opposite the mouth of the Dámodar.

Catastrophes of a terrible character occur. The two following may serve as examples. In 1877, the ship *County of Stirling*, from Calcutta to Hull, with a cargo of 1444 tons of wheat, etc., grounded on the Falta Sands, a little north of the James and Mary, and was turned literally upside down. She disappeared in eight minutes, and several of the crew were drowned. Next year, 1878, a first-class British steamer, with 2400 tons of general cargo, grounded on the Falta Sands, and capsized in two minutes. The vessel and cargo were entirely lost, and six of the crew were drowned.

The utmost care is taken with vessels while passing this dangerous section of the river, and indeed all the way from Diamond Harbour up to Falta Point (12·2 nautical miles). The height of the water on the bars is signalled from the bank from the time the vessels enter the river until they pass the last dangerous bar at Máyápur, 24 nautical miles above Diamond Harbour, and 19 below Calcutta. The result of this care and skill is, that ships no longer think of discharging either passengers or cargo at Diamond Harbour below the James and Mary Sands, but pass straight up to Calcutta. Diamond Harbour, formerly a busy port, is now a deserted village, with an old English graveyard. It was hoped that the opening of the Diamond Harbour Railway in 1884, connecting the port with Calcutta, would again bring back to Diamond Harbour some of its former prosperity.

The Húglí Pilot Service.—Much of the credit of maintaining and improving the Húglí as a great waterway is due to the Calcutta pilots,

—one of the most highly-skilled and most highly-paid Pilot Services in the world. This service has not only produced many distinguished men, but by its trustworthiness, intrepidity, and high sense of responsibility as a body, has contributed more than hydraulic engineering to keep open the approach to Calcutta. Every incoming vessel is boarded from a pilot brig before entering the estuary, and remains in charge of the pilot until he makes over the ship to the harbourmaster at Garden Reach on the southern limit of the Port of Calcutta. In the last century, ships of 700 tons usually discharged their cargo at Diamond Harbour, so as to avoid the dangers of the James and Mary Sands, and the shoals above. A minute supervision of the channels, and the constant readjustment of the buoys, together with a highly-skilled pilot service, now render the Húglí a comparatively safe waterway for ships of the largest tonnage. Vessels drawing 26 feet are safely piloted up to Calcutta.

Tug Service.—This result has been greatly aided by the introduction of steam, and by the powerful tug service maintained on the Húglí. When it is stated that ships of 700 tons unloaded in the last century at Diamond Harbour, it must be remembered that they had to tack up channels, which were not only shallow but narrow. This process sometimes occupied a week; and the fact that they halted at Diamond Harbour supplies no conclusive proof as to a lesser depth of water over the shoals in the last century than at the present day.

Attempts to improve the Channels.—While the Húglí has thus been successfully maintained as a waterway to Calcutta, direct efforts to manipulate its channels have not yielded favourable results. In 1867–68, a scheme for such improvements was submitted to Government; and the Máyápur bar, a dangerous obstruction 19 nautical miles below Calcutta, was selected for experiment. Spurs were run out some distance below high line from both banks of the river; but it was found that these spurs were quite inadequate to guide the flood and ebb tide into one channel. No improvement, therefore, resulted. Since that time further direct attempts have not been made to improve the channels of the river below Calcutta. But much attention has been given to the port of Calcutta itself. Large reclamations have been made on the Howrah foreshore, and substantial spurs have been thrown out between the East India Railway terminus at Howrah and Shalimar Point. These works have already caused a marked improvement in the depth of water within the port. Steam dredgers are employed in removing the silt along the jetties, and from other places where accumulations of sand are deposited.

The accommodation for discharging cargo at Calcutta has also been improved. A line of eight screw pile jetties, varying in length from 300 to 450 feet, extend from just below Armenian *ghát* to as

far south as Koila *ghát.* These jetties are furnished with hydraulic cranes, spacious warehouses, and every appliance required for the loading and discharging of cargo. The Port Commissioners have a scientific survey staff continually employed in surveying the river, and the charts which they issue will form a lasting and valuable record of the changes that actually take place. The bars over Máyápur and the James and Mary are sounded daily, the result being telegraphed both to Calcutta and Diamond Harbour for the information of the inward and outward bound pilots.

The Defences of the Húglí have of late years attracted serious attention. In a work like the present, it must suffice to state that, besides Fort William at Calcutta, defensive works have been erected at Falta, mounting eight 12-ton guns, and throwing 250 lbs. projectiles. It is also proposed to mount at Chingari-khál four 38-ton guns, together with three of these powerful weapons at Falta. In case of attack, two torpedo-boats would be employed, together with a torpedo-field, protected by light guns. Any further particulars would be out of place in this article. But the channels are so dangerous as in many places to be practically impenetrable by ships of war if the buoys were taken up. Torpedoes might render them absolutely inaccessible.

Estuary of the Húglí. — Shortly after the river leaves Diamond Harbour, 43·4 nautical miles below Calcutta, it widens out; and at Kalpí (Culpee), on its left or eastern bank, 49·7 nautical miles from Calcutta, the estuary may be said to commence. At Khijirí (Kedgeree), 67·8 nautical miles from Calcutta on the right or western bank, it becomes a vast sea, with the low-lying Midnapur coast on the west, and SAGAR (Saugor) ISLAND, just rising a few inches above the level of the water, 15 miles distant on the eastern side. Ságar lighthouse is passed at 81 nautical miles below Calcutta, and the Ságar anchoring buoy at 86 miles. For practical purposes, the sea may be said to commence at about 80 miles from Calcutta; but the outer floating light lies 121·8 nautical miles, and the outermost (or Pilot's Ridge) buoy at 139·6 nautical miles from Calcutta *viâ* the western channel.

The estuary of the Húglí is famous for its dangerous and numerous sandbanks; but they are subject to such great and rapid changes, that any attempt at a minute description of them would be more mischievous than useful. The best known of them are the Gaspar Sands and Ságar Sands. The same reason precludes any attempt at an exact description of the entrance channels. Horsburgh in his *Sailing Directions* gave detailed information on this point, but it is now nearly useless. The information condensed by Commander Taylor in his *India Directory for Steamers and Sailing Vessels* is more recent (1874). But the best and only really safe guides are the frequent issues of the charts brought up to date, 'showing the approaches to

the Sand-heads;' and for the James and Mary Sands 'from Luff Point upwards to Anchorage Creek' and Falta. A fresh survey of the river was commenced by the Marine Survey Department in 1882-83, and its results are being embodied by Lieutenant Petley, R.N., in a work for general reference by the public.

The tide runs rapidly in the Húglí, and produces a remarkable example of the fluvial phenomenon known as a 'bore.' This consists of the headwave of the advancing tide, hemmed in where the estuary narrows suddenly into the river, and often exceeds 7 feet in height. It is felt as far up as Calcutta, and frequently sinks small boats or dashes them to pieces on the bank. The tide itself runs to above Húglí town, and is felt as high up as Nadiyá. The difference between the lowest point of low water in the dry season to the highest point of high water in the rains, is reported at 20 feet 10 inches. The greatest mean rise of tide, about 16 feet, takes place in March, April, and May; with a declining range during the rainy season to a mean of 10 feet, and a minimum during freshets reported at 3 feet 6 inches.

Refuge Houses.—The Port Commissioners maintain a series of shelters or Refuges along the east face of the Húglí estuary and the adjoining Sundarbans. The Refuges are clearly marked on the charts, and are supplied with provisions and a few necessary tools for the use of shipwrecked mariners. They are regularly inspected; but notwithstanding every effort of the authorities, it is right to mention that they are still frequently plundered of their stores, and might in an emergency be found destitute of provisions or appliances of any sort. The violence of the south-western monsoon, and the cyclones which at intervals rage in the north of the Bay of Bengal, render these Refuges an important work of humanity. They have been the means of saving lives which must otherwise have been lost.

The Húglí receives no tributaries except the DAMODAR and RUPNARAYAN, already mentioned, and the HALDI, a few miles south of the Rúpnáráyan mouth. It is, however, connected on its left or eastern bank, by various tidal channels and creeks, with the network of distributaries by which the Ganges pours into the sea. Some of these eastern channels form the great waterways for boat and steamer traffic from Calcutta, through the Twenty-four Parganás and Sundarbans, to Eastern Bengal and Assam.

After the junction of the Húglí with the Dámodar and Rúpnáráyan from Midnapur District, near the James and Mary Sands, the river represents not only the three westernmost distributaries of the Ganges, but also the whole drainage of South-Western Bengal between the Ganges and the Chutiá Nágpur watershed.

The scenery on the banks of the Húglí varies greatly. The sea approach is disappointing. For many miles nothing but sandbanks can

be seen. These are succeeded by mean-looking mud formations covered with coarse grass, and raised only a few inches above high tide. By degrees cocoa-nut palms seem to stand out of the water on the horizon. As the river narrows above the James and Mary Sands, however, the country is not so low, and grows richer. Trees and rice-fields and villages become common, and at length a section is reached where the banks are high, and lined with hamlets buried under evergreen groves. The palm foliage and feathery bamboos now begin to assert themselves more and more strongly, and give a luxuriant tropical type to the landscape.

When at length the Port of Calcutta is reached, a scene of unexpected magnificence, unrivalled in its kind, bursts upon the eye. The long tiers of shipping, with the stately painted mansions of Garden Reach on the margin in the foreground, the fort rising from the great plain on the bank higher up, and the domes, steeples, and noble public buildings of Calcutta beyond, gradually unfold their beauties in a long panorama. The traveller really feels that he is approaching a City of Palaces. The river by which he has reached the capital furnishes one of the greatest triumphs in the contest of man with nature.

Húglí (*Hooghly*).—District in the Bardwán Division of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 13′ 45″ and 23° 13′ 15″ N. lat., and between 87° 47′ and 88° 33′ E. long. Húglí District is bounded on the north by the District of Bardwán; on the east by the Húglí river, separating it from the Districts of Nadiyá and the Twenty-four Parganás; on the south by Howrah District; and on the west by Bardwán District. Area (excluding Howrah, which was recently erected into a separate District, although for revenue purposes it is still included with Húglí District), 1223 square miles. Population (1881) 1,012,768. The administrative head-quarters are at HUGLI TOWN, situated on the west bank of the Húglí.

Physical Aspects.—The District is flat, with a gradual rise to the north and north-west. The scenery along the high-lying bank of the Húglí, which forms the eastern boundary of the District, has a quiet beauty of its own. Indeed, the whole banks of this river, from Guptipárá in the extreme north of the District to Ulubáriá in the magisterial District of Howrah in the south, present the appearance of a connected series of orchards and gardens, interspersed with villages, temples, and factories. The principal rivers are the HUGLI, the DAMODAR, and the RUPNARAYAN. The Húglí nowhere actually crosses the boundary, and the Rúpnáráyan only flows through a few miles of Mandalghát *parganá*. The Dámodar is the only large river which intersects the District. It enters Húglí from Bardwán on the north, and flows first in a southerly and then in a south-easterly direction, until it joins the Húglí opposite Falta.

It is navigable during the dry weather for a distance of 25 miles from its mouth.

As stated in the foregoing article on HUGLI RIVER, the Dámodar appears formerly to have debouched into the Húglí at a point about 39 miles above Calcutta; its old mouth is at present the irrigation channel known as the Kansoná *khál*. Since it has changed its course, it empties its waters into the Húglí almost at a right angle opposite Falta, and the silt which it carries with it is thus thrown into the Húglí, meeting also the silt suspended in the latter river. A further check to their united streams is given by the waters of the Rúpnaráyan, which enter the Húglí 6 miles lower down. The result is a partial obstruction to the force of the current; and the heavy silt falling to the bottom has gradually formed the 'JAMES AND MARY' Sandbank, which so seriously interferes with the navigation of the Húglí.

As in other alluvial Districts, the highest land lies nearest the rivers, and the lowest levels are generally found midway between two streams. This fact explains the existence of the extensive marshes between the Húglí and the Dámodar, and between the latter river and the Rúpnaráyan. The principal of these marshes are the Rájápur, Dánkuní, and Sámtí *jhíls*, the last of which covers an area of 30 square miles. The Ulubáriá and Midnapur High-level Canal passes through this District; an account of the canal will be found in the article on MIDNAPUR. There are 5 other canals in the District used for water-carriage; the total length of these is 33 miles.

History.—From a historical point of view, Húglí possesses as much interest as any District in Bengal, or, indeed, in India. The memories of many nations cluster round its principal towns, and every village on the river bank, which forms the eastern boundary of the District, is associated with some historical event. In the early period of the Muhammadan rule, Sátgáon, now a petty village, was the seat of the Governors of Lower Bengal and a mint town, and gave its name to one of the *sarkárs* in Todar Mall's rent-roll. *Sarkár* Sátgáon included not only the District of Húglí (with Howrah), but also that of the Twenty-four Parganás, with Calcutta, and a portion of Bardwán. Sátgáon city was the traditional mercantile capital of Bengal from the Puránic age to the time of the foundation of Húglí town by the Portuguese in 1537. About this time the channel of the Saraswatí river, on which Sátgáon was situated, began to silt up; and its waters gradually deserted the old Saraswatí bed for the Húglí, which was at that time a comparatively small river. In consequence of this silting up of the Saraswatí, Sátgáon became inaccessible to large vessels, and the Portuguese moved to Húglí.

In 1632, Húglí town, having been taken from the Portuguese by the Muhammadans, was made the royal port of Bengal; and the public

offices and records were withdrawn from Sátgáon, which rapidly fell into decay. A few years later, in 1640, the East India Company under a *firmán* from Sultán Shujá, then Governor of Bengal, established a factory at Húglí. This was the first English settlement in Lower Bengal; although the Orissa establishment at Pipplí had already been formed (1624–36). In 1669, the East India Company obtained, as a concession, the privilege of bringing their ships up to the town of Húglí for the purpose of loading. Until that time they had been compelled to transport their merchandise down to the seaboard in small sloops, and there re-ship them into large vessels.

It was at Húglí, too, that the English first came into collision with the Muhammadan Government of Bengal. In 1685, a dispute took place between the English factors at Húglí and the Nawáb of Bengal, and a military force was despatched from England and Madras to strengthen and protect the Company's factories at Húglí. The quarrel was on the point of adjustment, and it is said that the Nawáb was about to sign a treaty of peace, when an accident frustrated his intentions. A few English soldiers walking in the *bázár* at Húglí were suddenly attacked by some men belonging to the Nawáb's force; the comrades of the former came to their rescue, and a street fight ensued; the English commander bombarded the town of Húglí, and his fire burned to the ground five hundred houses, including the warehouses of the Company, containing goods to the value of £300,000.

This was not the first time that Húglí had been the scene of a struggle with a European power in India. It has been stated that previous to the establishment of Húglí as the royal port of Bengal by the Muhammadans, they had captured the place from the Portuguese. On that occasion (1629) it was besieged for three months and a half by a large force sent by the Emperor Sháh Jahán, who had resolved to expel the foreigners from his dominions. The place was carried by storm; more than 1000 Portuguese were killed, upwards of 4000 men, women, and children were taken prisoners, and of 300 vessels of all sizes only 3 escaped.

But Húglí District possesses historical interest for other European nations than England and Portugal. The Dutch established themselves at CHINSURAH in the 17th century, and held the place till 1825, when it was ceded to Great Britain in part exchange for the island of Java. The Danes settled at SERAMPUR, where they remained until 1845, when, by a treaty with the King of Denmark, all the Danish possessions in India, consisting of the towns of Tranquebar and Serampur (or Frederiksnagar, as it was called), and a small piece of ground at Balasor formerly occupied as a Dutch factory, were transferred to the East India Company in consideration of the sum of 12½ *lákhs* of rupees (£125,000). CHAN-

DARNAGAR became a French settlement in 1673, and in the time of Dupleix was a place of some importance. In 1757, Chandarnagar was bombarded by the English fleet under Admiral Watson, and captured, the fortifications and houses being afterwards demolished. On peace being established, it was restored to the French in 1763. When hostilities broke out in 1794, it was again taken by the English, and held by them till 1816, when it was a second time given up to the French, in whose possession it has ever since remained.

The revenue jurisdiction of the District of Húglí was established in 1819. Prior to that time it had formed a part of Bardwán, although it had been created a District Magistracy some years earlier. Up to 1829, a single officer exercised the powers of Judge and Magistrate throughout the entire District. Many changes have taken place in the area of Húglí from time to time, owing to transfers to and from neighbouring Districts, the latest being the erection of Howrah into a separate District for magisterial purposes.

Population, etc.—The first regular Census of Húglí was taken in 1872. The enumeration, on the area comprising the present District after the separation of Howrah, disclosed a population of 1,157,385 persons. The last Census in 1881 returned the population at 1,012,768, showing a decrease of 144,617, or 12·49 per cent., in the nine years. The decrease is attributable to the terrible fever epidemic which for so long devastated the Districts of the Presidency and Bardwán Divisions, Húglí being one of the tracts which suffered most. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area, 1223 square miles, with 16 towns and 2275 villages; number of houses, 263,546, of which 238,619 were occupied and 24,927 unoccupied; total population, 1,012,768, or an average density of 828 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·87; number of houses per square mile, 215; persons per village, 442; persons per house, 4·2. Classified according to sex, there were—488,952 males and 523,816 females; proportion of males, 48·3 per cent. of the District population. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years old—131,680 males and 123,295 females; total children, 254,975, or 25·2 per cent. The excessive proportion of male above female children, while the males only form 48 per cent. of the total population, is due to the fact that here, as elsewhere throughout India, the natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood, and many girls are thus returned as women. The ethnical division of the population is as follows:—Non-Asiatics, 146, of whom the great majority are Europeans; mixed races (Eurasians), 190; Asiatics, 1,012,432. There are few aboriginal tribes in Húglí; the total number of aborigines being returned at 4828, of whom the great majority are Dhángars. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 822,972,

or 81·3 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 188,798, or 18·6 per cent.; Christians, 655; Buddhists, 290; Brahmos, 16; 'others,' 37. All the aborigines, except 37 Santáls, are returned as Hindus by religion. Among the high castes of Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 76,271; Rájputs, 5530; and Káyasths, 25,484. Baniyás, the chief trading caste, numbered 17,352. Other Hindu castes numbering over 5000—Kaibartta, the most numerous caste in the District, comprising the bulk of the agricultural population, 142,526; Bágdí, a semi-aboriginal low caste of fishermen and cultivators, with a reputation for being daring and expert thieves, 134,115; Sadgop, the highest cultivating caste, 61,021; Goálá, cowherds and milk-sellers, 46,134; Telí, oil pressers and sellers, 38,757; Tántí, weavers, 29,767; Chámár, skinners and leather workers, 21,869; Nápit, barbers, 13,988; Hari, sweepers, 13,030; Chandál, cultivators and labourers, 11,845; Lohárs, blacksmiths, 11,405; Dom, cultivators, fishermen, and basket-makers, 10,825; Jaliyá, fishermen, 10,369; Kumbhár, potters, 9688; Tambulí, sellers of betel-leaf, 8457; Kalu, oil makers and sellers, 8281; Dhobí, washermen, 7988; Tior, fishermen, 6687; Madák, sweet-meat makers, 6615. The Muhammadan population are thus divided according to sect—Sunnís, 176,600; Shiás, 10,146; and unspecified, 2052. The Christians of the District comprise 67 British-born Europeans, 77 other Europeans, 1 American, 1 African, 190 Eurasians, 261 natives of India, 28 other Asiatics, and 30 'others.' As to sect, the Christians include 121 belonging to the Church of England; 133 to the Church of Scotland; 131 are Roman Catholics; 108 are Baptists; 83 returned themselves as Protestants only; the remainder belong to other denominations.

Division into Town and Country.—Húglí District contains twelve towns with a population exceeding 5000, namely, HUGLI and CHINSURAH, given as one town in the Census Report, population 31,177; SERAMPUR, 25,559; BAIDYABATI, 14,477; SYAMBAZAR, 12,462; BALAGAR, 11,233; JAHANABAD, 10,507; BHADRESWAR, 9241; KHANAKUL, 7708; BALI, 7037; BANSBARIA, 7031; KOTRANG, 5747; and UTTARPARA, 5307. These twelve have an aggregate population of 147,486, or 14·5 per cent. of the District population, leaving a balance of 865,282 as forming the rural population. Húglí and Chinsurah lie, in fact, so close to each other as to form in reality only one town. Serampur, 13 miles from Calcutta by rail, is interesting both historically (*vide supra*) and as having been the scene of the labours of the Baptist missionaries Carey, Marshman, and Ward. Among other places of interest are—CHANDARNAGAR, a town on the Húglí, already mentioned in the historical section above, and one of the few remaining possessions of the French in India; BANDEL, a village on the river bank, about a mile above Húglí, containing a Roman Catholic monastery, said to be the oldest

Christian Church in Bengal; SATGAON, now a miserable village, but once, as has been already stated, the mercantile capital of Bengal; TRIBENI, situated at the fabled junction of the Ganges or Húglí, the Saraswatí, and the Jamuná,—a place of great sanctity, and the scene of many religious gatherings; PANDUAH, now a small village with a railway station, but in ancient times the fortified seat of a Hindu Rájá; TARAKESWAR, a village and terminus of a short line of railway 22 miles in length, branching off from the East Indian Railway at Baidyabati, 15 miles above Howrah, containing a large and richly-endowed shrine of great sanctity, visited at all times of the year by crowds of pilgrims. Of the 2291 villages and towns comprising Húglí District, 981 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 781 between two and five hundred, 359 between five hundred and a thousand, 126 between one and two thousand, 25 between two and three thousand, 7 between three and five thousand, 6 between five and ten thousand, 4 between ten and twenty thousand, and 2 between twenty and fifty thousand.

As regards occupation, the male population is divided in the Census under six headings:—Class (1) Professional, including Government officials of all kinds and the learned professions, 18,849; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 10,990; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 15,593; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 173,994; (5) industrial, 54,792; (6) indefinite and non-productive, comprising general labourers, male children, and unspecified, 214,734.

Agriculture, etc.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District. There are three harvests—viz. *boro* or spring rice; *áus* or *niálí*, the autumn crop; and *áman* or *haimantik*, the winter rice, which is the principal crop of the year. A considerable quantity of the finer kinds of table rice is cultivated in Húglí, chiefly for the Calcutta market. Subordinate cereals grown are barley, wheat, and Indian corn; and among the other crops may be mentioned peas and many varieties of pulse, mustard and other oil-seeds, vegetables, jute, hemp, cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, mulberry, tobacco, and *pán*. Indigo is cultivated in the southern parts of the District, but to a much smaller extent than in former years, many factories having been lately abandoned. Of the total cultivated area of the District, it is roughly estimated that about thirteen-sixteenths are occupied by rice, and the different varieties of vegetables and pulse grown as second crops in winter after the rice has been harvested; the remaining three-sixteenths are under other crops. For land paying 9s. an acre of rent, a fair average out-turn is from 7 to 9 cwt. of unhusked rice per acre; and for superior land, renting at £1, 1s. per acre, from 26 to 33 cwt. per acre. Including the value of the straw and of second crops, the average value of a year's produce from an acre of land renting at 9s. may be set down at from £1, 10s. to £2;

and from an acre of land renting at 18s., at about £3, 8s. Rates of rent are high in Húglí District, and have considerably increased of late years. First-class paddy land, which formerly rented for 15s. an acre, now pays from £1, 1s. to as much as £1, 16s.; and the rent of inferior paddy land has risen from 7s. 6d. and 9s. to 10s. 6d. and 13s. 6d. an acre. Mulberry and tobacco lands are rented at £1, 4s. to £3 an acre, and sugar-cane lands at from £1, 4s. to £2, 8s. Irrigation of rice and other ordinary crops is resorted to only in case of deficient rainfall; but potato, sugar-cane, and *pán* require plentiful irrigation and manure to ensure a fair return. Wages and prices of food-grains have risen greatly of late years. Coolies, who in 1861 received 2¼d. a day, now receive 6d.; carpenters and bricklayers now receive 1s. who were then paid 9d. In 1860, the best quality of unhusked rice sold at 3s. 4d. a cwt.; it now sells at 4s. 1d. a cwt. The price of the best cleaned and husked rice has risen from 6s. 9d. a cwt. in 1860 to 8s. 2d. in 1882–83. Common rice in the latter year sold at 4s. 11d. a cwt., and wheat at 7s. 10d. a cwt. There is very little spare land in the District. Rotation of crops is practised to a very limited extent; and when lands are allowed to lie fallow, it is only for a few months.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occasionally visit Húglí, but, with one exception, they have not affected any crop throughout the entire District. The exceptional case was that of the 'Bombay sugar-cane,' which was totally destroyed by blight in 1860, since which time the cultivation of this valuable crop has been almost entirely abandoned. Floods, which were formerly common in the District, are now of very rare occurrence; protective embankments have been raised by Government along the banks of some of the larger rivers, and no other measures are required. Droughts, caused by deficiency of rainfall, sometimes occur, but not to any serious extent.

The drought of 1865, which preceded the great famine of the following year, was not much felt in this District; and the effects of the famine itself were much less severe in Húglí than in some of the neighbouring Districts. It was not until late in July that the Collector asked for a Government grant; and in August relief-centres were opened. In Húglí and Howrah (which were then one District), the average daily number of persons in receipt of relief was—in July, 645; in August, 3242; in September, 6741; in October, 7041; in November, 5941; and in December, 1041. The total sum spent on relief amounted to £5956, of which £750 was granted by the Board of Revenue, £3390 by the Calcutta Central Relief Committee, while £1816 were raised by private subscription. The means of transit in the District are amply sufficient to prevent the extremity of famine, by importation from other parts. The highest price of rice during the famine of 1866 was 14s. 9¾d. per cwt. in November at Chandarnagar.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets. The principal exports are—fine rice, silk, indigo, jute, cotton cloth, and vegetables; the chief imports—common rice, English piece-goods, lime from Bardwán and Sylhet, timber, etc. The District is said to export more than it requires to import. The principal river marts are Bhadreswar, Chandarnagar, and Baidyabáti, at all of which large quantities of agricultural produce are stored for shipment to Calcutta.

The chief manufactures of Húglí are silk and cotton. In the early days of the East India Company, silk and cotton fabrics to the annual value of about £100,000 were produced here, but the manufacture has gradually decayed, owing to the withdrawal of the Company's weaving factories and the importation of English piece-goods. The silk and cotton fabrics of the District are of a superior description, and command high prices. Among the other manufactures of Húglí are paper, rope, oil, baskets, and pottery.

The roads in the District are maintained in good order, at an annual cost of about £4000. The East Indian Railway runs through Húglí District for a distance of about 40 miles, with stations at Bainchí, Panduah, Khanyan, Magra, Trisbigha, Húglí, Chandarnagar, Bhadreswar, Baidyabáti, Seoraphuli, Serampur, and Konnagar. A line of railway, made by a private syndicate of Calcutta, under certain Government concessions, including the free gift of the land required, runs from Baidyabáti, on the East Indian Railway, to the pilgrim shrine at Tarakeswár. It was formally opened by Lord Dufferin in January 1885. The length of this line is 22 miles.

Two newspapers are published in Húglí, namely, the *Education Gazette*, a weekly, printed in English and Bengáli, and a Bengáli weekly, the *Sádhá ráni*, both published at Chinsurah. The *Friend of India*, a well-known weekly English newspaper, was formerly published at Serampur, but is now printed and published in Calcutta. At several towns in the District there are small public libraries.

Administration.—In revenue matters, as stated above, Húglí and Howrah form one District, but in all other matters are quite distinct. Owing to original deficiencies in the records, to the different systems of account which have been employed, and to the alterations in area which have taken place, a comparison of the revenue and expenditure of the District, as returned at different periods, would be worse than useless; but it may be simply stated that the balance-sheet of the District for 1850–51 gives the revenue in that year as £141,522. In 1870–71, the revenue had increased to £239,452, and in 1882–83 to £264,711. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting in 1870–71 to £145,462. In 1873, after the area of the District had been considerably reduced by transfers to Bardwán and

Midnapur, the land revenue amounted to £128,062; in 1882-83, it was £134,206.

The sub-division of estates has increased considerably of late years. In 1850, the number of estates was 2784, held by 5775 proprietors, the average payment by each estate being £41, 16s. 11d.; in 1873, the number of estates was 3537, and the average payment from each £36, 4s. 1d.; in 1883, there were 3752 estates, the average payment from each being £38, 8s. 4d.

In 1860, there were in the combined District of Húglí and Howrah 10 magisterial and 22 civil and revenue courts, with 7 covenanted English officers; in 1870, the number of officers was 8, and there were 16 magisterial and 35 civil and revenue courts. In 1882-83, the District of Húglí proper contained 10 civil and 19 magisterial courts.

For police purposes, the District is divided into 11 *thánás* or police circles. The regular and municipal police force of Húglí consisted at the end of 1882 of 815 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £12,125. In addition to these, there was in that year a rural police force of 4939 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £13,630. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in 1882 of 5754 officers and men, or an average of 1 man to every 0·21 of a square mile, or to every 176 of the population. The estimated total cost of maintaining this force was £15,575, giving an average of £2, 14s. 5d. per square mile, or 3¾d. per head of the population. *Dakáití*, or gang-robbery, was formerly of frequent occurrence, but is now not nearly so common. The French Settlement of Chandarnagar used to afford special facilities for smuggling opium and spirits, but this illicit business has of late been entirely stopped by the police. It is said that a little salt smuggling is carried on in Howrah. In 1882, there were three jails in the District—at Húglí, Serampur, and Jahánábád; the daily average number of prisoners was 495.

Education has spread rapidly of late, the number of aided and inspected schools having increased from 66 in 1856-57 to 193 in 1871-72, and the number of pupils from 7022 to 11,809. The number of such schools in 1877-78 was 625, attended by 22,666 pupils; and in 1882-83, 1579, attended by nearly 32,000 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected schools; and the Census of 1881 returned 32,990 boys and 746 girls as under instruction, besides 67,665 males and 1643 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The principal educational institution in the District is the Húglí College, with its attached collegiate school and law class, which was, in 1882-83, attended by 519 students. The College is maintained out of funds derived from landed property, fees, and endowments invested in

Government stock. The Muhammadan Madrasa was attended by 40 pupils at the end of 1882–83.

For administrative purposes, Húglí District is divided into 3 Sub-divisions—(1) The Sadr or head-quarters Sub-division; (2) Serampur; and (3) Jahánábád Sub-division. The District contains 14 municipalities, with an aggregate population of 151,757; the total municipal income in 1883 was £12,943, of which £11,332 was derived from taxation; average rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 5¾d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Húglí does not differ from that of Lower Bengal generally. The ordinary maximum temperature may be taken at 96° F., and the ordinary minimum at 60°. The average annual rainfall for a period of 18 years ending in 1881 is returned at 60·42 inches. The total rainfall in 1881 was 64·75 inches, or 4·33 above the average, and in 1882, 50·93 inches, or 9·49 inches below the average.

The diseases of the District are those common to this part of the country — fevers, cholera, dysentery, etc. The epidemic malarious fever, which has raged at intervals during the last quarter of a century throughout the Bardwán and Presidency Divisions of Bengal, will be found referred to in the article on BARDWAN DISTRICT. It made its first appearance in Húglí District in 1861, and since then it has been gradually extending its ravages from village to village; and there is now hardly a spot in the District which has not been visited by it. There are no accurate statistics to show the extent of the mortality, but the disease is said to have carried off more than half of the population, and to have almost depopulated certain villages. An estimate in the Census Report of 1881 puts down the loss of life from this fever during the 12 years from 1862, when it first appeared in this part of the country, to 1874, when it abated, at no less than 650,000 in Húglí District alone.

The special dispensaries established during the ravages of the fevers were closed in 1875, and since then the fevers of the District have been the ordinary seasonal malarious fevers of the country. Permanent dispensaries are established at Húglí, Serampur, Uttarpárá, Bainchí, Jahánábád, Baidyabáti, Dwarbasini, Bandipur, and Roshra. These dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1882 to 1564 in-door and 37,470 out-door patients. The number of deaths registered in the District in 1882 was 23,273, or at the rate of 22·97 per thousand of the population. [For further information regarding Húglí, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 251 to 440 (London, Trübner & Co., 1876). Also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the *Bengal Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Húglí.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Húglí District, Bengal, lying

between 22° 52′ and 23° 13′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 0′ 15″ and 88° 33′ E. long. Area, 442 square miles, with 873 villages or towns and 86,680 houses. Population (1881) 308,217, namely, Hindus, 226,092, or 73·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 81,810, or 26·6 per cent.; Christians, 290; and 'others,' 25. Number of males, 147,555—females, 160,662; proportion of males in total population, 47·8 per cent. Average density of population, 697 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·98; persons per village, 353; houses per square mile, 221; persons per house, 3·6. The population in 1872 was returned at 363,114, showing a decrease of 54,897, or 15·12 per cent. in nine years, owing to the ravages of malarial fever described in the article on Húglí District. This Sub-division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Húglí, Balágarh, Panduah, Dhaniakhálí, and Polba. In 1883 it contained 5 civil and revenue and 8 magisterial courts; strength of regular District police, 406 men, with 1794 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Húglí.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right or east bank of the Húglí river. Lat. 22° 54′ 44″ N., and long. 88° 26′ 28″ E. Húglí and Chinsurah immediately to the south form a single municipality, and the two towns were treated as one in the enumeration of 1881. Population of Húglí-cum-Chinsurah, (1872) 34,761; (1881) 31,177, viz. 15,382 males and 15,795 females — Hindus, 24,916; Muhammadans, 6017; Christians and 'others,' 244. Area of town site, 3840 acres. Gross municipal revenue, 1883–84, £4326, of which £3894 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 5¾d. per head. Railway station on the East Indian Railway, 25 miles from Calcutta. The principal building is an Imámbárá, constructed out of funds which had accumulated from an endowment left by a wealthy Shiá gentleman, Muhammad Mohsin.

Húglí is said to have been founded by the Portuguese in 1537, on the decay of SATGAON, the royal port of Bengal, a decay caused by the silting up of the Saraswatí river, on which it was situated. Upon establishing themselves, the Portuguese built a fort at a place called Gholghát (close to the present Húglí jail), vestiges of which are still visible in the bed of the river. This fort gradually grew into the town and port of Húglí. But the Portuguese made themselves very unpopular with the Mughal Governor of Bengal. About 1621, Prince Kharram, afterwards the Emperor Sháh Jahán, revolted against his father, the Emperor Jahángír. He was defeated, and fled to Bengal, where he solicited the assistance of the Portuguese at Húglí, and asked to be furnished with troops and artillery. The Portuguese governor refused, and taunted the prince with being a rebel. Sháh Jahán never forgave the refusal and the insult. Eight years afterwards, shortly after

his accession to the throne of Delhi, a representation was made to him by the Governor of Bengal that some European idolaters who had been allowed to establish factories at Húglí had mounted their fort with cannon, and had grown insolent and oppressive. The Emperor, glad of this pretext, gave orders that they should be immediately expelled from his dominions.

A large force was accordingly marched against the Portuguese at Húglí, and, after a siege of three and a half months, the fort was carried by storm, over 1000 Portuguese being slain, and upwards of 4000 men, women, and children were taken to the Emperor at Agra as prisoners of war. After the capture of Húglí by the Muhammadans, the seat of the royal port of Bengal was removed thither from Sátgáon, together with all the records and offices.

The English factory at Húglí dates from 1640, being established under a *firmán* granted to Dr. Boughton, a surgeon in the East India Company's service, who had cured a favourite daughter of the Emperor's of a dangerous illness. It was at Húglí, also, that the English first came into collision with the Muhammadan Government. In 1685, a dispute took place between the English factors at Húglí and the Nawáb of Bengal, arising out of the oppressions and exactions which the former suffered at the hands of the native officials. Ultimately, in 1688, war was declared between the English and Mughals, and a force was despatched by the home and Madras authorities to strengthen and protect the Company's factory at Húglí. This expedition alarmed the Emperor, who hastened to end the quarrel and make peace by promising to redress the grievances complained of by the English. The Nawáb is said to have been on the point of signing a treaty, when an accident frustrated his intentions. A few English soldiers, walking in the *bázár* of Húglí, were suddenly attacked by some men belonging to the Nawáb's force. The comrades of the former came to their rescue, and a street fight ensued. The town of Húglí was bombarded by the English commander, and 500 houses burned to the ground, including the warehouses of the Company itself. The English factors embarked on the expeditionary ships, and Húglí was for a time abandoned by the Company's servants. They were, however, invited to return by the Emperor, and the peace was signed under which the Company obtained permission to build a fortified factory at Sutanatí, the present site of Calcutta—a peace which lasted for upwards of seventy years.

Hugri (*Hagri* or *Vedavati*).—River of Southern India, rises in Mysore State, and flows 125 miles into the Tungabhadra at Halekota in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 43′ 20″ N., long. 76° 57′ 50″ E. The Hugri, better known under its name of Vedavati, is a shallow and broad stream, rarely navigable.

pastoral and nomadic. Neighbouring towns pay tribute to the *Thum*, or Governor, of Hunza. The ruling family is called Ayeshé or 'Heavenly.' The State is divided into 8 Districts, each District having its own fort. Elevation, 8400 feet. The religion professed is Muhammadanism; the caste is the tribal one of Yeshkuns. Cultivation in Hunzá is good. Fruit of all kinds grows in abundance. The people are peaceful; firearms are scarce, but bows and arrows are used.

Hurang.—Range of hills in the east of Cachar District, Assam, north of the Barák river, across which runs the road from Silchár to Manipur.

Husain.—Town in Sikandra *tahsíl*, Alígarh District, North-Western

Hukeri.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency; 30 miles north-north-east of Belgáum town. Lat. 16° 13′ N., long. 74° 38′ 20″ E. Population (1872) 5364; (1881) 5519. Connected with the high-road to Poona (Púna), and with Chikori and the large town of Gokák by metalled roads. Hukeri is a *Mahalkar's* station and has a post-office. On the outside of the town, to the north, there are some interesting Muhammadan remains, including two domed tombs in the same style as those at Bíjápur. One of the tombs is kept in repair and furnished for the use of the Collector, or as a rest-house for travellers. A few miles to the east there is another large tomb of the same architecture. The celebrated falls of Gokák are within 12 miles of Hukeri, and can be visited from thence in a day. The town is abundantly supplied with good water by means of an underground pipe connected with a spring to the north-west. This system of water-supply dates from the period of Muhammadan rule.

Huliyár ('*Tiger Town*').—Village in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore State; 51 miles south-east of Chitaldrúg town. Lat. 13° 35′ N., long. 76° 34′ 51″ E. Population (1881) 1319. Ancient inscriptions and other remains have been found. Head-quarters of the Budihál *táluk*.

Huliyur-durga.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State; 40 miles south of Túmkúr town. Lat. 12° 49′ 20″ N., long. 77° 4′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1114, chiefly Muhammadans. Fortifications on the hill over the village, 3096 feet above sea-level, were erected by a local chieftain. Until 1873, the head-quarters of a *táluk* of the same name; now included in Kunigal *táluk*.

Humcha ('*Golden Bit;*' or *Pomburchcha*).—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 51′ N., long. 75° 16′ E. Population (1881) 840, almost exclusively Jains. Traditionally said to have been the capital of a Jain principality of the Solar line, founded by Jinadatta, who came from Mathura (Muttra) in Upper India. Existing ruins indicate the site of a large town. The oldest inscriptions found

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Ibrahímábád.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated on the Gúmti river. Lat. 26° 50′ N., long. 81° 15′ E. Population (1869) 3095; (1881), 2477, namely, 2096 Hindus and 381 Muhammadans. Bi-weekly market, at which a considerable trade in grain is carried on.

Ichak.—Town and municipality in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 5′ 24″ N., and long. 85° 28′ 13″ E., and between 7 and 8 miles north of Hazáribágh town. A picturesque place, containing the *garh* or fort which up till recently was the family residence of the Rájás of Rámgarh. Population (1872) 8999; (1881) 7346, namely, Hindus, 6510, and Muhammadans, 886; area of town site, 920 acres; municipal revenue (1881–82), £289; average rate of taxation, 7½d. per head of population.

Ichákádá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; 4 miles west of Mágurá. Formerly a small military station under the Nawáb's Government; now a roadside *bázár*, with considerable trade in molasses, potatoes, and pine apples.

Ichámatí.—River of Pabná District, Bengal; a branch of the Padma or Ganges, given off about 7 miles south-east of Pabná town at the village of Dogáchí. After passing Pabná town, it flows through the District by a tortuous route, and joins the Haráságar a short distance below the confluence of that river with the Baral. During the rains the Ichámatí is a wide and beautiful stream, but for eight months in the year it is little more than a dry, sandy bed; the length of its course is 32 miles.

Ichámatí.—River of Nadiyá District, Bengal; a branch of the Mátá-
formed by Haidar Ali for military purposes, and still kept up by
Government. Until 1864, a tannery, a manufactory of *kamblís* or
Parganás, where it takes the name of JAMUNA. It is a deep river, navigable throughout the year by the largest trading boats.

Ichápur (*'City of Desire'*).—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 6′ 40″ N., long. 84° 44′ 10″ E., on the Great North Road, 16 miles south-west of Berhampur. Population (1871) 12,493; (1881) 5528, of whom 5362, or 97 per cent., were Hindus, and 166, or 3 per cent., Muhammadans; area of town site, 3720 acres. Seat of a sub-magistrate, with police station, post-office, and travellers' bungalow. Ichápur was formerly the head-quarters of the Ichápur District, in the Chicacole Sarkár, and the seat of the Muhammadan Náib; but in 1768 the Province of Chicacole Sarkár was attached to Ganjám. Six miles to the south-west of Ichápur are the Bodágiri Hills.

Ichápur.—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 36′ N., long. 78° 23′ E. Site of a large Government powder manufactory; also station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 16¾ miles from Calcutta. Contains an aided vernacular school.

Ichauli.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated 25 miles east-north-east of Bara Banki town. Lat. 26° 58′ N., long. 81° 37′ E. The original Bhar holders were driven out by the forces of Mahmúd of Ghazní (995–1030 A.D.), whose lieutenants, having been granted the village in *jágír*, razed the Bhar fort to the ground, founded a new town, and colonized it from among their followers, but retained the original name. The descendants of the *jágírdárs* still own the village, which contains a fine masonry tank constructed by Mahárájá Tikáit Rái, finance minister of Asaf-ud-daulá, who was born here. Population (1881), Hindus, 2455; Muhammadans, 2296; total, 4751.

Ichâwar.—Head-quarters of Ichâwar *parganá*, Bhopal State, Central India. Population (1881) 4139. Held in *jagír* by a French lady, the lands yielding £3828 yearly. Small Christian community. [illegible] belonging to another branch of the same stock, established the Gangwál *ráj* in this *parganá* about 1716, and his descendants still hold the estate. The rivers are the Rápti, Singhiá,

Idar.—Native State in Mahi Kántha, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. —*See* EDAR.

Idha.—Village in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh.—*See* AIDAHA.

Igatpuri.—Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 376 square miles; contains 1 town and 127 villages. Population (1881) 68,749, namely, 35,549 males and 33,200 females, or 132 persons to the square mile. Hindus numbered 64,993, or 95·83 per cent.; Muhammadans, 1813, or 2·63 per cent.; Christians, 813, or 1·21 per cent.; and 'others,' 1130. Since 1872, the population has increased by 11,014. In the north-west and in the south the *táluk* is hilly, the soil poor and shallow, the climate cool and healthy. Average rainfall during 12 years ending 1881, about 114 inches. The revenue survey was introduced in 1860, and the rates of assessment settled for 30 years. In 1880 the number of holdings was 71,117, with an average of 37 acres each, paying an annual rental of £1, 5s. 7d. *Naglí* (Eleusine Corocana) is the chief cereal grown; in 1881 there were 13,071 acres under rice, and 12,035 acres under wheat. Land revenue, £9406 in 1881. The Sub-division contains 2 criminal courts, with 1 police station. Number of regular police, 35 men; village watch-

Population (1872) 4985; (1881) 6306, of whom 4164, or 66 per cent., were Hindus, and 1009, or 16 per cent., Muhammadans; Christians numbered 837; Jains, 80; Pársís, 131; and 'others,' 85. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £300; rate of taxation, 11¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. Igatpuri is a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 35 miles south-west of Násik and 85 miles from Bombay; post-office. It is situated at the head of the Thál pass, 1992 feet above sea-level, and is used by Europeans as a health resort during April and May. Half a mile to the north-east is a reservoir. English church, Roman Catholic chapel, and Methodist place of worship. There are three schools. The railway station includes a locomotive workshop, employing 700 workmen; also waiting and refreshment rooms. Pimpi, near Igatpuri, contains the tomb of Sadr-úd-dín, a Muhammadan saint of great local sanctity.

Iggutappa-kunda.—Mountain in Coorg (Kúrg). One of the highest peaks in the main chain of the Western Gháts. Distant from Merkárá 30 miles. The summit is crowned with a small temple and fortifications. The mountain-sides are clothed with impenetrable [illegible]

potatoes, and pine apples.

Ichámatí.—River of Pabná District, Bengal; a branch of the Padma

prising *parganás* Hasangarh and Gorai. Area, 213 square miles, of which 188 are under cultivation. Population (1872) 114,665; (1881) 111,379, namely, males 60,319, and females 51,060. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 104,964; Muhammadans, 6394; and Jains, 21. Of the 216 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 141 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue at time of settlement, £28,769; total Government revenue, £31,646; rental paid by cultivators, £42,774; incidence of Government revenue, 4s. 8⅝d. per acre. The proportion of cultivable land is 91 per cent. of the total area; and of the cultivable area 94 per cent. is under tillage, the small margin of 6 per cent. being barely sufficient for grazing purposes. Irrigation, which reaches 76 per cent. of the cultivated area, is derived from wells, water being found at from 20 to 30 feet below the surface. Wheat occupies 23 per cent., cotton 14, *joar* 17, gram and *bájrá* each 8, and barley 5 per cent. of the cultivated area. The agriculturists are chiefly Játs, who are especially good and industrious cultivators. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, with police stations at Iglás and Gonda; strength of regular police, 34 men, besides 250 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Iglás.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Iglás *tahsíl*, situated on the Muttra road, 18 miles from Alígarh town. Besides being the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, with a police station and post-office, Iglás is a mere agricultural village, with

a population in 1881 of 1428. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. During the Mutiny of 1857, the place was unsuccessfully attacked by the Játs.

Ikauna.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bhinga *parganá*, on the east and south by Gonda District, and on the west by Bahráich and Bhinga *tahsíls*. Up to the time of Firoz Sháh Tughlak, this part of the country is said to have been under the sway of a tribe of the carpenter caste, who lived by robbery and marauding. In the reign of that monarch, about 1374 A.D., the Janwár Rájput, Bariár Sáh, after having effectually put down these robbers, received a grant of the tract on condition of keeping the country in order. This was the foundation of the great Ikauna *ráj*, which continued in the family of the original grantee until the Mutiny, when the estate was confiscated for the rebellion of its owner, part being conferred upon the Mahárájá of Kapúrthala, and part upon the Rájá of Balrámpur, who belongs to a branch of the Ikauna family, which separated from the parent stem upwards of two centuries ago. Rájá Pratáp Singh, belonging to another branch of the same stock, established the Gangwál *ráj* in this *parganá* about 1716, and his descendants still hold the estate. The rivers are the Rápti, Singhiá, and Koháni, all running south-east—the two former through the north and the latter through the south of the *parganá*. The soil throughout is excellent, consisting mainly of good clay and sand mixed, and in the northern or low-lying portion, of fine alluvial deposit. Area, 259 square miles, of which 139 are under cultivation, one-fourth being irrigated. Government land revenue, £13,007; average incidence, 2s. 11¾d. per acre of cultivated area, 1s. 9⅝d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 7⅛d. per acre of total area. Of the 213 villages which make up the *parganá*, no less than 206 are held under *tálukdári* tenures, comprising the estates of the Rájás of Kapúrthala, Balrámpur, and Gangwál. Population (1869) 79,421; (1881) 89,626, namely, 45,903 males and 43,723 females; average density of population, 307 per square mile. The Brahmáns are the most numerous caste; the Ahírs and Kurmís coming next. Two good roads intersect the *parganá*, both passing through Ikauna town. Four schools. The *parganá* contains many interesting Buddhist remains. The village of Tandwá is identified by General Cunningham with the Tu-wei of Fa Hian and Hiuen Tsiang, where Kasyapa Buddha was born and lies buried; while a statue of the mother of Sakyá Buddha is now worshipped in the village as Sítá.

Ikauna (*Akona*).—Town in Ikauna *parganá*, Bahráich District, Oudh; situated 22 miles almost due east from Bahráich town, on the road from that place to Balrámpur. Lat. 27° 33′ 11″ N., long. 81° 59′

38″ E. The town had always been the residence of the Ikauna Rájá, down to the time of the Mutiny, when the estate was confiscated in consequence of the disloyalty of its owner. Population (1881), including neighbouring hamlets, 2216. The village itself contains only 264 inhabitants. Two Hindu temples; 3 mosques; police station, and dispensary. English school supported by the Mahárájá of Kapúrthala.

Ikhtiyárpur (called also *Jahánábád*).—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated close to Rái Bareli town, in lat. 26° 13′ 50″ N., and long. 81° 16′ 25″ E. Founded by Nawáb Jahán Khán. The town is included within the municipal limits of Rái Bareli town, of which it is a suburb, and its population is included in the figures returned for that municipality. Principal buildings—a palace called the Rangmahál, mausoleum, masonry market-place, and travellers' rest-house. Noted for a coarse description of cloth known as *garhá*, and for a sweetmeat called *bárá*, the latter being a speciality of the place.

Ikkeri ('*Two Streets*').—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 7′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 3′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 164. From 1560 to 1640, the capital of the Keládi chiefs, a family of Lingáyat origin, who exercised a wide dominion over the surrounding country. The cradle of the dynasty was at Keládi, in Shimoga District, and its members fixed their residence finally at BEDNUR or Nagar. Bednúr was captured by Haidar Alí in 1763, and the territory of the Keládi chiefs was annexed to Mysore. The dynasty, however, took its name from Ikkeri, and its currency was known as Ikkeri *pagodas* and *phanams*, even after the mint was removed. The walls of Ikkeri were of great extent, formed of three concentric enclosures. In the middle stood the palace and citadel, built of mud and timber, and adorned with carving and gold. All that now remains is the large stone temple of Aghoreswara, containing effigies of three chiefs, represented as doing obeisance.

Ilambázár.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal; on the Ajai river, in lat. 23° 37′ 35″ N., long. 87° 34′ 50″ E. Seat of a considerable trade, and celebrated for its manufacture of lac ornaments, Ilambázár being the centre of this industry. The sticklac is obtained from the neighbouring western jungles. Messrs. Erskine & Co. established large shellac and lac-dye works here, but these have recently been closed. There are some ten or twelve native factories.

Ilavarasanandal.—Hamlets in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* ELAVARASANANDAL.

Ilichpur.—District and town in Berár.—*See* ELLICHPUR.

Ilkal.—Town and municipality in Hungund Sub-division, Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 57′ N., and long. 76° 9′ E.; 8 miles south-east of Hungund, and 52 south-east of Kaládgi. Popula-

tion (1872) 10,107; (1881) 9574, of whom 7836, or 82 per cent., were Hindus, 1704, or 17·7 per cent., Muhammadans, and 34 Jains. Area of town site, 63 acres. Municipal revenue (1880–81), £651; rate of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head of the population within municipal limits; in 1883, the municipal revenue was £574, and the rate of taxation 1s. per head. Post-office and dispensary. Ilkal is the principal market town of the District; the staple exports are silk and cotton manufactures, rice, and other agricultural produce. Cotton cloth, manufactured into *sárís* for women's dress, is exported to Sholápur, Poona, Belgáum, and the Nizám of Haidarábád's Dominions. The military cantonment of Lingságar, the station for one of the Nizám's regiments, 24 miles from the Hungund frontier, is supplied with grain from Ilkal. Patients treated in the dispensary in 1883—in-door, 78; out-door, 2940.

Ilol.—Petty State under the Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, in the Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 5511; (1881) 5603; gross revenue, inclusive of transit dues, £1564. No minerals have hitherto been discovered, but the hills yield quarries of sandstone. The vegetable products are cotton, wheat, and the ordinary varieties of grain and pulse. There is one school, with 138 pupils. The family of the chief are Hindus, Makwáná Kolís by caste. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture; there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The present chief, Thákur Wakhat Singh, was educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot, in Káthiáwár. Ilol State pays a tribute of £186 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £43 to the Rájá of Edar, and £2 to the State of Ahmadnagar, now incorporated with Edar.

Ilol.—Chief town of the petty State of Ilol, in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 59′ N., and long. 73° 18′ E. Dispensary.

Imámgarh.—A ruined fortress in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 32′ N., and long. 69° 16′ E. Hither, in 1843, Mír Rústam Khán Talpur fled for refuge, trusting to its situation in

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